DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 126 694 FL 007 760

AUTHOR	Slama-Cazacu, Tatiana, Ed.; And Others
TITLE	The Romanian-English Contrastive Analysis Project; Reports and Studies, Vol. 1.
INSTITUTION	Bucharest Univ. (Rumania).; Center for Applied Linguistics, Arlington, Va.; Romanian Academy of Sciences, Bucharest. Center of Phonetics and Dialectology.
PUB DATE	7[illegible]
NOTE	162p.; For related documents, see FL 007 760-765, and 680
AVAILABLE FROM	Center for Applied Linguistics, Attention: Dorothy Rapp, 1611 N. Kent St., Arlington, Virginia 22209 ($3.00)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 HC-$8.69 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Applied Linguistics; *Contrastive Linguistics; Descriptive Linguistics; *English; *Grammar; Language Instruction; Language Patterns; Nominals; Phonetics; *Phonology; Psycholinguistics; Romance Languages; *Romanian; Second Language Learning; Syntax; Transformation Generative Grammar; Vocabulary

ABSTRACT

The first volume of this series is divided into reports, studies, and preliminary results of work in progress. All were presented at a meeting on contrastive linguistics held in Romania. The project is intended to reveal the specificity of the structures and systems of Romanian and English with a view to comparing them and, on that basis, formulating certain norms underlying the practical teaching of the two languages. Following a review of the scope and the aim of the project, the reports deal with the activity of working groups for studies in phonology and phonetics, grammatical structure, vocabulary, and psycholinguistic research. A report on the Zagreb conference on English contrastive projects is also provided. The methodological studies cover such topics as the meeting of linguistic systems in the learner, second language teaching, the theoretical basis of contrastive syntax, and the relationship between contrastive analysis and the transformational method. Work in progress includes contrastive analyses of English and Romanian consonants, morphophonemics, vowel systems, lexicon, nominalization, and productive and non-productive structures. (CLK)

****
* Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished *
* materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort *
* to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal *
* reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality *
* of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available *
* via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not *
* responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions *
* supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original. *
****

ED126694

FL007760

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Center for Applied Linguistics

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND TO THE ORGANIZATION OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER.

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

UNIVERSITY OF BUCHAREST
(DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH)
AND
LABORATORY OF PSYCHO-
LINGUISTICS

ROMANIAN ACADEMY OF SCIENCES
CENTER FOR RESEARCH IN PHONETICS
AND DIALECTOLOGY

CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS - WASHINGTON D.C.

THE ROMANIAN-ENGLISH CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS PROJECT

Reports and Studies

Bucharest, University Press
1971

The first publication of the Romanian-English Contrastive Analysis Project includes the reports and papers read at the first meeting of the Project held in Bucharest on February 1-2.

The meeting was attended by the researchers involved in the Project from the English Departments of the Universities of Bucharest, Cluj, Iaşi, Timişoara, the Department of Romanian of the University of Bucharest, the Laboratory of Psycholinguistics of the University of Bucharest, the Center for Research in Phonetics and Dialectology of the Academy of Sciences of the Socialist Republic of Romania.

Further issues of "Studies and Reports" as the regular publication of the Project will include the results of observational and experimental psycholinguistic research on language learning and language teaching.

The present volume was coordinated and edited by Tatiana Slama-Cazacu, Sanda Golopenţia Eretescu and D.Chiţoran.

FOREWORD

The papers included in the present volume were presented at the first meeting on contrastive linguistics organised by the Faculty of Germanic Languages of the University of Bucharest in co-operation with the Centre for Research in Phonetics and Dialectology of the Academy of the Socialist Republic of Romania, with the participation of the English Department of the Universities of Cluj, Jassy and Timişoara as well of numerous members of the Romanian language Depts of the University of Bucharest. The authors of these reports and studies are involved in the Romanian-English Contrastive Analysis Project, to be elaborated in cooperation with the Centre for Applied Linguistics in Washington. This study is meant to reveal the specificity of the structures and systems of the Romanian and English Languages with a view to compering them, and, on that basis, to formulate certain norms underlying the pratical teaching of the two languages.

In other words, the aim of the study is not only a better understanding of the linguistic structure but also applied deductions, meant to raise the entire teaching activity above the empirical and occasional practice it continues to be based on, to outline fundamental teaching programs based on the scientific knowledge of the language.

It seems useful to me to underline this didactic applied finality of the study which we consider to be a first task of philologists in our higher education establishment. I may repeat a generally accepted truth namely that the various aspects of linguistic research particularly the comparative one have proved fruitful for the continuous efforts meant to modernise foreign language teaching based today to a great extent in the use of technical aids. It is worth mentioning at the same time, our conviction that beyond the concrete results of these studies, the discussions and conclusions regarding the research methodology have a general character. They can serve as a stimulus for specialists in other fields of linguistics to approach similar problems and find solutions for them in order to contribute to the continuous progress of our philological education.

Jean Livescu
Rector of the University of Bucharest

C O N T E N T S

Page

Foreword - by Prof.Dr.doc. Jean Livescu, Rector of the University of Bucharest

I. Scope and Aim of the Romanian English Project 9
by Acad. Alexandru Rosetti and Prof. Ana Cartianu

II. Reports

1. Report on the Activity of the Working Group for Studies in Phonology and Phonetics 13
by Virgil Ştefănescu Drăgăneşti

2. Report of the Working Group for Studies in Grammatical Structure 17
by Dumitru Chiţoran and Sanda Golopenţia-Eretescu

3. Report of the Working Group for Studies in Vocabulary 27
by Edith Iarovici and Rodica Mihăilă

4. Report of the Working Group of "Psycholinguistic Research" stage of: Establishing the Hierarchical System of Errors 31
by Tatiana Slama-Cazacu and Dumitru Chiţoran

5. Report on the Zagreb Conference on English Contrastive Projects 49
by Dumitru Chiţoran and Tatiana Slama-Cazacu

III. Studies

A. Methodological Studies

1. Contrastive Study "in abstracto", or Function

Page

of the Meeting of Linguistic Systems in the Learner? (Contrastive Studies in the light of Psycholinguistics) 57
by Tatiana Slama-Cazacu

2. Contrastive Analysis: Questions Other than Linguistic Theory and Research Methodology 71
by Dumitru Chiţoran

3. On the Theoretical Basis of Contrastive Syntax 81
by Laurenţiu Theban

4. Contrastive Analysis and the Transformational Method 91
by Ileana Vincenz

B. Preliminary Results of Work in Progress

1. Contrastive Analysis of the Consonants of English and Romanian 99
by Viorel Ştefănescu-Drăgăneşti

2. Some Aspects of the Contrastive Analysis of English and Romanian Morphophonemics 109
by Anca Belchiţă

3. The Front Vowels of Romanian and English 113
by Laurenţia Descălu

4. A Tentative Approach to Romanian-English Lexical Contrastive Analysis 127
by Edith Iarovici and
Rodica Mihăilă

5. Productive and Non-Productive Structures in the Contrastive Analysis of English and Romanian 145
by Pompiliu Georgescu

6. Aspects of Nominalisation in English and Romanian 155
by Alexandra Petrovan

I.

SCOPE AND AIM OF THE ENGLISH-ROMANIAN PROJECT

by Al.Rosetti and
Ana Cartianu

A comprehensive Romanian-English Language Project was launched in December 1969 by the University of Bucharest and the Centre for Research in Phonetics and Dialectology of the Academy of the Socialist Republic of Romania on the one hand, and the Centre for Applied Linguistics in Washington D.C. on the other, with a view to developing research activity underlying the teaching of English in Romania and of Romanian in the English speaking countries.

The Project includes activities in three main fields:

(a) the implementation of a contrastive analysis of English and Romanian;

(b) the organization of intensive courses in English by the University of Bucharest for Romanian specialists intending to study in the English-speaking countries;

(c) the organisation of teacher training courses for Romanian teachers of English.

The University of Bucharest has designated Prof.Dr.Docent Ana Cartianu as responsible head of the entire Project.

As responsible head of the first phase of the Project, devoted to the implementation of the contrastive study, the Academy has designated Academician Prof. Alexandru Rosetti.

The objectives of the Romanian-English contrastive study are three-fold: a) to produce a systematic comparison of salient aspects of the sound systems, grammars, lexicons and writing systems of Romanian and English which indicates the psycholinguistic implications of structural differences and similarities between the two languages for Romanian learners of English and English-speaking learners of Romanian; b) to formulate the results of the contrastive analysis so as to provide the basis for more sophisticated and effective methods of teaching either language to speakers of the other (with English, however, viewed as the primary target

language), and to illustrate this application by the production of a set of specimen teaching materials; c) to provide an opportunity to younger Romanian and American scholars specializing in Romanian or English for further professional development, through participation in the project under the guidance of senior researchers and consultants. Such development would be in the direction of increased sophistication in the fields of general and applied linguistics, modern linguistic theory, psycholinguistics, language pedagogy and contrastive analysis.

The products of the study will include: a) a series of monographs by individual researchers presenting the results of analytic linguistic research on principal structural simililarities and differences between Romanian and English, as well as the results of observational and experimental psycholinguistic research on foreign language learning characteristics associated with these similarities and differences; b) a comprehensive summary volume, intended for wider distribution than the monographs, correlating and summarizing the results obtained by individual researchers; c) specimen teaching materials designed on the basis of analysis results and intended to illustrate the applicability of these results to the teaching of English to Romanian students at various levels of proficiency and within representative age groups.

The Project is organized by the University of Bucharest in collaboration with the Academy of the Socialist Republic of Romania through its Centre for Research in Phonetics and Dialectology on the one hand, and the Foreign Language Program of the Centre for Applied Linguistics in Washington, on the other hand.

Romanian project participants include specialists from the University of Bucharest (the English Deparment of the Faculty of Germanic Languages, the Psycholinguistics Laboratory and the Faculty of the Romanian Language and Literature), and specialists from the Centre for Research in Phonetics and Dialectology of the Academy. Staff members of the English departments of the Universities of Cluj, Iaşi and Timişoara are also involved in the Project.

A number of American scholars are also involved in the project either as project researchers or consultants. Professor Frederik B. Agard was in Bucharest during the Academic year 1969/70, offering a course in General Linguistics and Contrastive Analysis while also acting as consultant for the Project.

There was no American consultant for the 1970/71 Academic year, but steps are now been taken by the Center for Applied Linguistic to ensure an American specialist for 1971/72.

Dr. William Nemser, Director of the Foreign Language Progrem of the Centre for Applied Linguistics has contributed valuable administrative and professional support to the project particularly through his visits to Romania during this period.

II. REPORTS

R E P O R T
ON THE ACTIVITY OF THE WORKING GROUP FOR STUDIES IN PHONOLOGY AND PHONETICS

by V. Ştefănescu Drăgăneşti

Contrastive analysis of Romanian and English, in the field of the phonology and phonetics of the two languages, has the following aspects:

a) the contrastive analysis of the phonological systems of the two languages; and

b) the contrastive analysis of the phonetic realizations of the phonemes of the two languages.

The second aspect implies the identification, from an acoustic point of view, of the pertinent features of the sounds of the two languages with special regard to the differences between them.

Both of these aspects represent the present objectives of our activities.

I. With respect to the contrasting of the phonological systems, one of the first problems is that of the fundamental direction of our activity, that is, if we are to carry out a contrastive analysis only on the basis of descriptive phonology or whether we are to start from a transformational phonology basis in the light of generative grammar.

This problem will be solved in the light of the general line adopted by the contrastive analysis of Romanian and English as a whole.

With regard to the inventory of the phonemes of the two languages, if, the problem, in so far as Romanian is concerned, does not arise, the English and American phoneticians appear to belong to two groups:

- the group of English phoneticians, who accept, with small differences, the inventory of English phonemes as initially

drawn up by Henry Sweet and later on defined by Daniel Jones, with a few minor additions made, at present, by A.C.Gimson; and

- the group of American phoneticians, who start in their works from the inventory of phonemes drawn up by Trager and H.L. Smith, which is based on quite different principles.

Although, at first sight, the problem does not appear to be very important, it still raises serious difficulties in the identification of the phonemes of English because of the different points of view adopted by English and American phoneticians in approaching the question.

For instance, American phoneticians sometimes consider as diphthongs what English phoneticians consider as monophthongs, e.g. the long monophthongs /i:/ and /u:/ considered as diphthongs: /iy/ and /uw/ by American phoneticians. On the other hand, what English phoneticians consider as diphthongs, American phoneticians consider to be monophthongs, e.g. /ei/ and /əu/ transcribed as /e/ and /o/ by American phoneticians.[1]

Sometimes the number of phonemes differs as well from one author to another.

What is more interesting is the fact that we do not find a uniform point of view in approaching the problem of the phonological system of English even in the works published under the sponsorship of the Center for Applied Linguistics of Washington, D.C.

An attempt to solve the problem, by suggesting an overall phonological system of English, was made by Prof. Fr.B.Agard, in the framework of his lectures on the contrastive analysis of Romanian and English which he delivered at the University of Bucharest in 1969-70.

In the light of the above, we have undertaken, as a first step, a comparative study between the consonant systems of Romanian and English, at the phonological level, which has been substantiated at present only in an incipient form but which will be extended and completed with a view to publishing it as a paper in the framework of the studies with which we are concerned (V.Ştefănescu-Drăgăneşti).

---

1 Compare The Sounds of English and German, by W.G.Moulton, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1962, to The Sounds of English and Italian, by Fr.B.Agard and R.G.di Pietro, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1965.

II. As regards contrastive analysis work carried out at the phonetic level, we have initiated the following activities:

1. The basis for proceeding to the contrastive analysis of English and Romanian phonology, by the Project team constituted for this task, was outlined in a type-written paper "Analiza contrastivă a limbilor engleză şi română - nivel de analiză: fonetic şi fonologic" by D.Chiţoran and distributed to other members of the Project at a meeting in the spring of 1970.

2. The Centre of Phonetical and Dialectal Studies has started experimental acoustic research on the following problems:

a) the intonation of English sentences pronounced by Romanians learners of English (Andrei Avram);

b) the front vowels of Romanian and English (Laurenţia Dascălu);

c) observations from an acoustic point of view, concerning the oral plosive consonants of Romanian and English (Valeriu Şuteu).

The informants have been chosen from among people learning English in the framework of courses of English for the employees of certain institutions, e.g.:

- a group of beginners and another group of advanced-beginners in English attending classes of English given for the employees of the Central University Library of Bucharest;

- a group of advanced beginners in English attending classes of English given for the employees of Fructexport and Agroexport (foreign trade enterprises) of Bucharest.

We should like to mention that the above papers have only a preliminary character as the recordings on which they are based do not fully satisfy our demands concerning quality and quantity. However, we think that they may be published in the Bulletin of our conference.

During the present year the following studies will be carried out at the Centre of Phonetical and Dialectal Studies:

a) The affricate consonants of Romanian and English (Maria Mărdărescu).

b) The central vowels of Romanian and English (Laurenţia Dascălu).

c) The diphthongs of Romanian and English (Cornelia Cohuţ).

d) Remarks on the intonation of English sentences pronounced by Romanians learning English (Andrei Avram).

For this purpose our work group (commission) will select a wide range of informants who can supply us with the necessary

data and satisfy the required standards for our research work.

3. As regards research work carried out within the English Section of the Department of Germanic Languages of Bucharest University a number of recordings of short sentences, texts and dialogues have been made by various groups of students, viz.:

a) a group of 1st year students in the English Section;

b) a group of advanced beginners in English attending classes of English for the employees of Fructexport and Agroexport (foreign trade enterprises) of Bucharest;

c) a group of advanced beginners in English attending classes of English in the framework of the courses organized by the People's University of Bucharest for the general public.

The recordings are now being studied and transcribed in phonetic script in order to establish certain features concerning the pronunciation of English (sounds and intonation) as they appear with the respective Romanian informants (V.Ştefănescu-Drăgăneşti).

We also intend to use the English recordings made by various informants in the Laboratory of Psycholinguistics as well as some recordings of Romanian utterances as pronounced by American and English students learning Romanian at the Institute for Foreign Languages of Bucharest.

REPORT
OF THE WORKING GROUP FOR STUDIES IN GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE

by Dumitru Chiţoran and
Sanda Golopenţia-Eretescu

1. The framework of the group

The Grammar group includes five members of the Centre for Research in Phonetics and Dialectology ("C.R.P.D") of the Academy of the Socialist Republic of Romania (Ana Belchiţă, Sanda Golopenţia-Eretescu, Alexandra Roceric-Alexandrescu, Laurenţiu Theban and Ileana Vincenz), three members of the Contemporary Romanian Department within the Faculty of philology (Valeria Guţu-Romalo, Em.Vasiliu, Gabriela Pană-Dindelegan) and ten members of the English Department of the Faculty of Germanic Languages(Andrei Bantaş, Elena Bîrlă, Dumitru Chiţoran, Taina Duţescu, Pompiliu Georgescu, Paula Iancovici, Sanda Iliescu, Alexandra Petrovanu, Ioana Poenaru, Domnica Spăriosu) in all twenty members.

The guiding committee consists of two members: Dumitru Chiţoran, from the English Department and Em.Vasiliu whose substitute for 1971 is Sanda Golopenţia-Eretescu - from the Department of Contemporary Romanian.

The following people have chosen specific topics on which they are working at present:

From the "C.R.P.D."

1.- Ana Belchiţă (in collaboration with prof. F.B.Agard) : Contrastive Morphophonemics of Romanian and English.
2.- Sanda Golopenţia-Eretescu: The Contrastive analysis of adverbs of place, time, manner in Romanian and English.
3.- Alexandra Roceric-Alexandrescu: Negation in Romanian and English.
4.- Laurenţiu Theban: Syntactic surface structures in Romanian and English.

5.- Ileana Vincenz: Sentence contraction (nominalization) in English and Romanian.

From the English Department

6.- Andrei Bantaş: The Nominal Group in English and Romanian.
7.- Elena Bîră: Modal and auxiliary verbs in English and Romanian.
8.- Dumitru Chiţoran and Alexandra Petrovanu: Aspects of nominalization in English and Romanian.
9.- Taina Duţescu : Passivization in English and Romanian.
10.- Paula Iancovici: The Verbal Group in English and Romanian.
11.- Sanda Iliescu: The Pronoun in the Romanian and English Languages.
12.- Domnica Spăriosu: Classification of verbs according to number and type of their complements.

Papers under 1-5 (belonging to "C.R.P.D." members)are also included in the research plan on 1971 of the Centre of Dialectal and Phonetical Research. The papers 7 and 11 are partial fulfilments of Ph.D. dissertations under way of the respective authors (Elena Bîră, Sanda Iliescu).

A number of five members of the Group have not announced any assignment so far: Valeria Guţu Romalo, Gabriela Pană-Dindelegan, from the Department of Contemporany Romanian (they joined the Group at the end of 1970); Florica Bărcilă, Pompiliu Georgescu, Ioana Poenaru, Liliana Vendel from the English Department.

2. Considerations on the activity carried on up to the present session

The year 1970 was primarily devoted to general information, to acquiring a broad orientation in the problems of contrastive research. This primary objective was achieved:

- participation in Prof. P.B.Agard's course of lectures;
- specialization abroad (two of the members of the Group S.Golopenţia-Eretescu and L.Theban sent out for specialisation in the U.S.A., and respectively Portugal took advantage of that opportunity to enrich their information concerning theory and technique in contrastive analysis;
- private reading.

In the last quarter of the year 1970 the thirteen members mentioned above began to explore the corpus on which their respective papers are based.

Seven members of the Group, namely Sanda Iliescu, Florica Băncilă, Taina Duţescu, Pompiliu Georgescu, Alexandra Petrovanu, Domnica Spăriosu, Liliana Vendel, all of them from the English Department, under the guidance of Prof. F.B.Agard and Tatiana Slama-Cazacu carried out the operation of correcting an important number of tests taken with students of the English Department of the University of Bucharest and learners of English at the People's University of Bucharest.

A number of 7 members of the group, namely Ana Belchiţă, Dumitru Chiţoran, Pompiliu Georgescu, Sanda Golopenţia-Eretescu, Alexandra Petrovanu, Laurenţiu Theban and Ileana Vincenz are presenting papers at the present scientific session.

Organizational Problems

During the period January 1970 - January 1971 the members of the group for grammar carried out two different kinds of activities:

1) They did research work (materialized in grammatical studies) on the problematics of the Project of Contrastive Analysis.
2) They performed a series of operations necessary for the tabulation of errors made by Romanian learners of English.

According to the kind of activity they unfold, the members of the collective are split into four categories:

(A) Those who have only carried out an activity of type(1): the 4 members from CRPD and Andrei Bantaş, Elena Bîrlă, Dumitru Chiţoran, Paula Iancovici /10 members/.

(B) Those who have exclusively carried out activity of type (2): Pompiliu Georgescu, Florica Leucuţia Băncilă, Ioana Poenaru, Liliana Vendel /4 members/.

(C) Those who have carried out both types of activity - (1) and (2): Taina Duţescu, Sanda Iliescu, Alexandra Petrovanu and Domnica Spăriosu /4 members/ and

(D) Those who, because of being abroad or joining the working group at a later date, have not yet substantially contributed to either of the two kinds of activities: Valeria Guţu-Romalo, Gabriela Pană-Dindelegan, Emanuel Vasiliu /3 members/.

In conclusion only half of the collective (10 members) have carried out tasks specific to the working group for grammar. The

other half - that is 11 members - have either contributed to the fulfilment of the tasks of the collective for the classification of errors /3 members/ or simultaneously carried out activities in both collectives, thus being too much overloaded /4 members/, or entirely left out of any activity /3 members/.

Consequently we make the following suggestions, meant to improve the present state of things:

a) The members of the group for grammar who have worked so far only on error tabulation should be attached to the group for error classification, an operation for which they have already been prepared by the kind of activity they have carried out.

b) That those members who have fulfilled the task of the group they belong to as well as those of the group for the classification of errors should continue to work of the latter in order to be able to carry through the research work they have begun, by the end of the year.

c) That the two members from the Contemporary Romanian Department should join the activity of the grammar collective whose concerns they share, thus making a valuable contribution to the work.

The (a), (b) and (c) provisions are of a great urgency because the tasks confronting the grammar collective as well as those of the collective for the classification of errors will require, by their scope, a unique interest and effort in the year 1971.

We also mention the following:

- a number of themes of contrastive grammar have not yet been introduced into the research programme;

- four members of the group will be away, for specialising courses abroad in 1971;

- the number of tests which are to be tabulated in 1971 is 10 times greater than that of the tests tabulated by 6 members of the collective in 1970; 1430 as against 131. Their tabulation by members of the grammar collective might hinder its specific activities.

Scientific Problems

1. The completion of the problematics

The research problematics of the grammar collective does not include as yet a series of important themes such as:

- The Adjectival Group
- The Comparison of the Adjective
- The Tense-System
- The Interrogation Transformation
- The Relative Transformation
- The Coordination Transformation
- The Article in Transformations

2. The exact scope and nature of the themes

The scope of the themes is not yet sufficiently outlined. One should check whether some of the problems which have not yet been explicitly dealt with, are tacitly envisaged by the authors as part of their studies.

One should discuss such possibilities as:

- The treatment of the Comparison of the Adjective within the theme (2).
- The treatment of the Adjectival group within the theme(1o).
- The treatment of the article in the theme (6).

In this way the following ample themes would still have to be approached:

The Tense System.

The Interrogation Transformation.

The Relative Transformation.

The Coordination Transformation.

We propose that each member of the grammar collective should hand Mrs. Alexandra Petrovanu at the Institute of Foreign Languages or Mrs. Sanda Golopentia-Eretescu at the CREPD a general summary of the problems he or she intends to tackle within the theme already chosen until February 15, 1971.

This will also enable us to avoid overlappings and clearly demarcate the themes as in the case of:

- themes 5, 6, 8 and 11, all of them pertaining to the Nominal group,
- themes 2, 7, 9, 1o, 12, all of them pertaining to the Verb Phrase.

3. The Corpus

a) The quantitative limitation of the corpus to a lexical corpus of 2ooo words.

The Corpus taken as a basis in the grammatical studies (with the exception of the morphophonological ones) does not consist of a list of words but of a list of sentences.

The limitation to a lexical corpus of 2000 words would mean the creation, in the grammatical study, of corpus sentences, which should exclusively or primarily contain the items of the lexical corpus. There is an obvious danger of obtaining an artificial kind of corpus if we go on these lines.

In the morphophonological study, the limitation to a lexical corpus of 2000 words unaccountably leaves out a series of structures or, on the contrary, hypostatises the others.

The primary aim of contrastive grammar studies is the exploration of the mixt type of competence resulting from the contrast between Romanian as a mother tongue and English as a second language.

Competence cannot be quantified.

The limitation to a lexical corpus of 2000 items, although necessary in the contrastive study of the Lexis, does not seem to work in the contrastive study of grammar.

b) Linguistic or metalinguistic corpus ?

In other words, shall we work with a corpus made up of morphemes, words, sentences representative for Romanian (English) or with a corpus made up of the Romanian (English) studies of morphology, phonology and syntax ?

There are, for both languages, partial or general studies which seem to us sufficient for the level of generality required by the present Project. We consider that the exploration of the linguistic corpus should aim at checking or increasing the data of the metalinguistic corpus (where it already exists) rather than being taken as the absolute starting point of the analysis.

Consequently the stress might fall on contrastive analysis proper rather than on the pre-contrastive stage of the separate description of the two languages.

With a view to this we think that the following operations are needed:

- The explicit outlining, by each of the authors of the above mentioned studies, of the metalinguistic corpus - i.e. of the basic descriptions already existing, in the respective field for Romanian, English or, if possible for both languages.
- The centralization of these metalinguistic corpuses, hav-

ing as a result the metalinguistic background - common for all the members of the collective.

- The adjusting of the Romanian (English) descriptions of the same linguistic phenomenon, i.e. the separation, within the existing description, of the elements pertaining to the general method and theory adopted by the author from the elements pertaining to the linguistic corpus to which he resorts.

- The enumeration of the gaps in the description, i.e.of the problems for which neither Romanian, nor English, nor both have got a satisfactory linguistic description. In this case one should proceed to the exploration of a linguistic corpus.

- The enumeration of the gaps in the contrast, namely of the linguistic phenomena which do not exist in either of the two languages.

The choice of the metalinguistic corpus would influence the method used in working out the studies. Each participant would make use of the method of the study (studies) he considers to be essential for the respective field. By an essential study we mean a study that opens up the most interesting problems of analysis, that covers and integrates part of the material.

Besides, by centralizing the metalinguistic corpuses, the authors of the above mentioned convergent themes will write compatible studies, based on a common background and the final operation of unifying will become by far easier.

c) Do errors belong to the linguistic corpus or not ?

There are two possibilities, between which one has to choose:

- errors are part of the linguistic corpus,therefore they are examined ab initio and primarily, representing surface manifestations of the aproximate system created by the Romanian speaker of an English which is not yet Standard;

- errors do no belong to the linguistic corpus, which exclusively consists of:

- a corpus of Standard Romanian;

- a corpus of Standard English.

In the first case the research would consist in an interpretation (explanation) of known errors by an alternating or simultaneous referrence to the grammatical systems of Romanian and English.

In the second case the research would consist in the setting up of the predictable systems of transition on the basis of the contrast between the grammatical systems of Romanian and English, i.e. in the enumeration of the possible errors.

Besides the fact that the latter possibility is by far more interesting from a theoretical point of view, as it discusses errors not yet detected by means of tests it also opens up the perspective of a more profitable use of the hierarchic system of errors, functioning as a checking test.

In case the transition systems set up by the collectives of phonetics, grammar and lexis possess an explanatory power for the hierarchic system of errors set up by the respective collective the research may be considered completed for the time being.

On the contrary, in case some discrepancies appear between the results of the theoretical approximation and the hierarchy of errors, the research will not possibly be considered completed its task being to settle whether the discrepancy can be accounted by:

- the general psycholinguistic character of the errors detected and not the linguistic specific character of Romanian and English;
- deficiencies in the isolated linguistic description or in contrastive analysis;
- deficiencies in the classification of errors;
- deficiencies in both the linguistic research proper and the classification of errors.

In the last 3 cases, the research will have to be resumed.

We therefore suggest that the classification of errors should not form the basis of the selection of the key-problems in the analysis and that it should be filtered and stored for the checking confrontation with the works of the collectives for grammar, phonetics and lexis.

4. The Pedagogical Interpretation of the Results

We consider that one should already take into account the necessity of submitting the results obtained to the examination of researchers from the field of pedagogy and the psychology of learning.

5. The Further Unifying of the material. As far as the further unifying is concerned we should like to mention, as an ex-

perience which might be turned to good account, the so-called U C L A grammar, which tries to merge the latest results obtained in American English transformational grammar with the results obtained in structural analysis.

REPORT
OF THE WORKING GROUP FOR STUDIES IN VOCABULARY

by Edith Iarovici and
Rodica Mihăilă

The group dealing with lexical problems, set up in February 1970, is formed of Florica Băncilă, Elena Greavu, Liliana Mareș, Taisia Niederkorn, assistant-lecturers at the English Department of the University of Bucharest, and led by Dr. Edith Iarovici, reader at the same Department, and Rodica Mihăilă, researcher at the Centre for Research in Phonetics and Dialectology of the Academy of the Socialist Republic of Romania.

The working group has the following objectives in view:

1) to compile an English-Romanian dictionary made up of the most frequent 2,000 words;

2) to write theoretical studies and articles resulting from the confrontation of the above-mentioned body of words with their Romanian equivalents.

The dictionary will be mainly addressed to teachers of English and authors of English text-books. Indeed, besides the equivalents of the words and meanings listed (also given in a context) it will grade the teaching of these words and meanings according not only to their frequency, but also to the degree of difficulty revealed by their confrontation with Romanian.

Therefore, it is not just a matter of translating an English dictionary of high-frequency words into Romanian, but also of analysing each and every item in comparison with its Romanian equivalent, bearing in mind resemblances and differences of form, meaning, distribution, connotation, grammatical status. It is by taking into account the totality of these factors - besides frequency - that the gradation of the various words and meanings in the teaching of English will be established.

The existence of such a dictionary will, on the one hand, lead to the avoidance of the numerous more or less rare and use-

less words which still burden many text-books and, on the other hand, it will enable Romanians who are learning English to acquire quite rapidly and easily the basic vocabulary that is absolutely necessary for the first stages of their work.

Even some rather recent text-books which do take into account the criterion of frequency - e.g. those written by Eckersley and Candlin - include, in the first volume, such relatively rare and difficult words as believer, canvas, good-hearted, guinea, laughable, manservant (Eckersley), or card-table, customer, friendship, lettuce, pocket-knife, washing-up (Candlin). Besides, as is quite natural, the authors of these text-books do not know and cannot take into account the difficulties experienced during the first stage - by Romanians who come upon certain English words whose form may mislead them, e.g. advertisement, conductor, figure, novelist (Eckersley), to agree, excited, expensive, platform (Candlin).

Our dictionary is aimed at doing away with such shortcomings and helping teachers and text-book writers to select and grade the lexical material for the first stages of teaching. Its objective is therefore a pedagogical one.

As regards the second objective of the work group dealing with lexical problems - the working out of some theoretical studies and articles on the contrastive analysis of the vocabularies of English and Romanian - it will be attained especially in the years 1972 and 1973. However, it is not being neglected at present either, as shown by the introductory study written in 1970 by E.Iarovici and R.Mihăilă for the "Analele Universităţii Bucureşti", and by the paper (referring to the same topic) to be presented at this meeting.

Three types of studies are contemplated so far:

1) Studies concerning contrastive relationships according to form and meaning (words having identical or similar forms and meanings - "cognates"; words having similar forms, but fully or partly different meanings - "deceptive cognates"; words having different forms and fully or partly identical or similar meanings - "different forms"; contrastive analysis of various series of synonyms and antonyms; in the field of word-formation, which belongs both to lexis and to morphology, contrastive analysis of affixation, composition, conversion, etc.).

2) Studies dealing with differences of connotation and differences of geographic, social, stylistic and grammatical distribution.

3) Studies referring to the confrontation of frequencies in the two languages.

As the method of work for attaining both objectives cannot be based on the making up and working out - by means of an electronic computer - of an ample corpus, the only available solution is to resort to Michael West's "General Service List of English Words" (London, 1959). This dictionary is being translated and analysed by the members of the group: they copy the information offered by West on slips of paper and indicate - using various dictionaries - the Romanian equivalents of the words and meanings; they translate and, if necessary, supplement the examples given in a context; then they put down the relevant information revealed by the analysis of the whole slip, confronting the two languages in the respective situations.

All the slips are checked, corrected, completed and minutely finalised by Edith Iarovici and Rodica Mihăilă, who are in charge of the whole work.

Both the working out and the checking up of the slips are rather difficult, requiring much patience and perseverance. Besides, there are certain inconsistencies in Michael West's dictionary, in spite of its obvious merits: it relies on a corpus which is not wholly representative and conclusive (taken from encyclopaedias, reviews, text-books, novels, essays, biographies, books on science, poetry, etc. - therefore based on the written and not on the spoken language). Consequently, certain percentages are highly improbable. Others are arbitrary and even fanciful, for instance when the author indicates, by means of an asterisk, that the specified figure refers to an unknown total of words. Another - rather frequent - example is that of homonyms, which are calculated together. Michael West tried to solve the statistical difficulties he met with by supplying subpercentages having in view the various meanings and grammatical functions of a word. Nevertheless, there is a certain degree of subjectivism both in his way of establishing some polysemantic values and in his treatment of phrases.

The members of the working group have tried to do away with these shortcomings - most of which are in fact acknowledged by the author himself - by resorting to other dictionaries. But Thorndike's dictionary, which was obtained a short time ago, has not proved very useful, as it provides even less information than West's. It includes no reference to the frequency of meanings,

so that it does not make any thorough-going contrastive analysis possible. It is of some help only for a confrontation of the relative - not absolute - frequencies of the 2,000 words included in West's dictionary.

Under such conditions, the work of the group dealing with lexical problems is not only difficult, but it also requires time and minuteness. Nevertheless, 60 p.c. of the dictionary has already been worked out and 25 p.c. checked up.

Mention should be made of the fact that the slips, which are drawn up in detail, offer more information than is necessary for the dictionary that is being compiled. In the course of 1971, part of the data will be used for the dictionary items and for the annexes of the latter. These annexes will consist of lists drawn up according to the various contrastive categories (cognates, deceptive cognates, etc.) and lists of words arranged according to the various stages of teaching. The information included in the dictionary, as well as the data resulting from the thorough analysis of the different words and meanings, will make up the basic material for the theoretical studies contemplated for the years 1972-1973.

In fact, the dictionary itself will be not only an instrument for the process of learning and teaching English, but also a very concentrated theoretical study.

The members of the group intend to compare their dictionary with the "Frequency Dictionary of Romanian Words", by Alphonse Juilland, P.M.H. Edwards and Ileana Juilland (Mouton & Co., 1965), in order to confront the words having the highest frequency in the two languages. It will not be an easy task, as West's and Juilland's dictionaries are made up on the basis of quite different principles and methods (Juilland does not mention the frequency of polysemantic values, except when he refers to homonyms; on the other hand, being a more recent work, his dictionary was worked out with the help of an electronic computer, and it offers information not only as regards frequency, but also dispersion and usage, taking functional styles into account). Various studies and articles will be resorted to in order to compensate for this lack of unity.

This confrontation will be most useful during a subsequent stage, when a Romanian-English frequency dictionary is to be compiled for the acquisition of Romanian by English-speaking people.

R E P O R T
OF THE GROUP OF "PSICHOLINGUISTIC RESEARCH"

(in charge of T.Slama-Cazacu)

STAGE OF:
ESTABLISHING THE HIERARCHICAL SYSTEM OF ERRORS

(in charge of T.Slama-Cazacu and D. Chiţoran)

I. Theoretical and methodological activities and research[x]
II. The working out of the system of criteria for classifying errors[xx]

I. Theoretical and methodological activities and research

1. Aims. The set-up and membership of the working groups

The Report refers to the activity carried out in view of a psycholinguistic approach in the research of contrastive analysis within the framework of the Bucharest project.This approach, which underlines a specific characteristic of the Bucharest project, concentrates on "the learner", the meeting point of the two systems (the base language and the target language), and the systematic study, founded on precise theoretical principles, of the phenomena taking place in this case as well as on corroborating them with the data provided by the strictly linguistic analysis.

Our activity has a theoretical aspect and a research one (systematic observation, experiments, fact analysis),our programme providing, especially for its later stages, for psycholinguistic research as such, primarily based on laboratory experiments.

We shall only refer here to the first stages of the project that we have already achieved, namely: theoretical activities

---

x Report drawn up by T.Slama-Cazacu.
xx Report drawn up by D.Chiţoran.

(2.1.), and research activities in connection with establishing the hierarchical system of errors (2.2.), that this report will mainly deal with.

1.1. The following have taken part in the above mentioned activities so far: a specialist in linguistics and psychology (see 2.1. and 2.2.), constantly (T.Slama-Cazacu); only in some of its stages: W.Nemser from the Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington (see 2.1.), as well as linguists and members of the teaching staff of the English Department of the Institute for Foreign Languages and Literatures(IFLL) of the Bucharest University (the activity mentioned under 2.2.): D.Chiţoran (together with T.Slama-Cazacu in charge of the group for establishing the hierarchical system of errors -HSE); D.Duţescu (co-operated for the tests in 1969, prepared the sentences to be translated, selected and multiplied the pictures for the "Composition illustrating a set of pictures" probe, etc.); E.Iarovici, V.Ştefănescu-Drăgăneşti (supervizing some probes V.Ş.D. also selected the text to be dictated and recorded some dialogues); Taina Duţescu†, Florica Leucuţia-Băncilă†, Alexandra Petrovanu(taking part when the probes were given, classifying the papers and marking them with the respective abbreviations, working out the material for Tables 1 and 2); Sanda Iliescu† (scheduling probesII [1970-1971], preparing the rooms), Johanna Andrei, A.Bantaş, Dominica Bottea, Elena Bîră, Pompiliu Georgescu, Rodica Kereszki, Lelia Lungu, Liliana Matache, Lucreţia Petri, Ioana Poenaru†, Ofelia Sfetcu, Domnica Spăriosu, Elena Stamatescu, E.Stoichici, Anda Teodorescu (supervizing the students during these probes); those marked with † as well as Irina Iancovici, Anne Lupaş, Elena Vendel checked probes I (1969); we must also mention here the assistance lent by lecturer Margaret Davis and the contribution of F.B.Agard - Professor at Cornell University and Consultive Professor for the Romanian English Contrastive Analysis Project, who worked out the first system of classifying errors in spring 1970.

1.2. Due to conflicting opinions regarding the orientation and set-up of the Project, we could not set up a large group from the very beginning and the research initially put forward by the rapporteur could not be initiated.

However, a constant enough activity was carried out at the beginning, not without a certain effectiveness, consisting in discussions, theoretical articles published in reviews, papers

Table 1

Total number of probes	Comp.S (1969)	Comp.S (1970)	F.Comp (1970)	Tr.1 (1970)	Tr.2 (1971)	Dict. (1971)	Tr.1&2 (int.I)	Comp.S P.U.
1340	96	348	291	299	129	131	12	34

P.U. - People's University, Bucharest
int.I - Intensive courses, ILLS, first series

Table 2

Students ILLS	Number of subjects by levels		
	in 1969	Ist and Vth year	96
	in 1970-1971	Ist year	94
		IInd year	149
		IIIrd year	99
		IVth	102
		Vth year	43
int.I			12
P.U.			34
Total			673

(T.Slama-Cazacu together with W.Wemser) to be dealt with below.

The research for establishing HSE started as far back as November 1969 (later on accompanied by probes for studying intonation, dialogues, etc.) -in co-operation with various members of the English Department, without establishing the precise membership of the group. In autumn 1970 the structure of the whole Project was reorganised and consequently the necessity of carrying out a research of the type initially suggested was brought to the fore again. The group of psycholinguistic research has set its main first objective to establish HSE, while T.Slama-Cazacu suggested that a special group for establishing HSE should be set up led by T.Slama-Cazacu and D.Chiţoran. The task of establishing HSE was

considered to be of common interest for the whole English Language Department, that set up the above-mentioned group and made its contribution to the taking of probes in 1970-71.

2. The activity of the group

2.1. The theoretical and methodological activity started at the same time with the Bucharest Project of Contrastive Analysis, with an article written by W.Nemser and T.Slama-Cazacu: "A contribution to contrastive linguistics (A psycholinguistic approach : contact analysis), published in "Revue roumaine de linguistique", 1970, no.2, pp.101-128. The article mainly suggests the reshuffling of traditional studies of contrastive analysis, the comperison in abstracto of the two systems, holding that all through the research one should take into consideration the contact of the two systems in "the learner", study the concrete situation of learning, and consequently, start by establishing - under scientifically controlled conditions - the typical hierarchical system of errors for English learners with Romanian as a base language. The article held that later comperative studies should take into account the data established during the first stage, and at the same time study the aspects underlined by the first study, thoroughly by psycholinguistic experiments in the laboratory. The article was also the object of a paper, A contribution to contrastive linguistics : the psycholinguistic approach, presented by T.Slama-Cazacu together with W.Nemser in October 23 1969, at the Scientific session of the staff of the Foreign Languages Institute of the Bucharest University. Reference to this article and concise presentations of our conception were put forward in the article Contrastive linguistics at the Center for Applied Linguistics, by W.Nemser, published in "The linguistic reporter", 1970, no.3, p.4, and in the paper Recent trends in contrastive linguistics, by the same author, at the "Second Canadian Symposium on Applied Linguistics, Ottawa, May 1970", pp.18-19. T.Slama-Cazacu has recently presented a paper on Psycholinguistics and contrastive studies, at "The Zagreb Conference on English Contrastive Studies", while the paper presented at this session, Contrastive studies in abstracto, or function of the meeting of linguistic systems in the learner (The contrastive studies in the light of psycholinguistics) also pertains to the same activity.

2.2. The research work as such included: a) Probes for establishing the hierarchical system of errors (it will be dealt with in extenso); b) Probes with a special procedure (worked out by T.Slama-Cazacu) of recording the dialogue between six pairs of speakers, with a view to making up a corpus of spoken language to be used for establishing HSE and for studying at a later stage various aspects, especially the characteristics of intonation with speakers of English as a target language (by Romanians) or as a mother tongue. These probes and recordings were made in the Psycholinguistics Laboratory and the study was planned to be carried out by D.Chiţoran, T.Slama-Cazacu and V.Ştefănescu-Drăgăneşti.

We have not been able to make any psycholinguistic experiments in the laboratory yet, as we have not got the necessary apparatuses mentioned in the protocol of Cooperation with the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington and in the plan of endowments suggested by us to the Bucharest University (these experiments will also be founded on suggestions offered by the results and the material collected for establishing the hierarchical system of errors).

2.3. The method of establishing HSE

2.3.1. The theoretical grounds of the survey aiming at establishing the hierarchical system of errors will be dealt with in the personal paper presented by the rapporteur. We mention the fact that, starting from the necessity of taking into account the conditions under which the process of learning a foreign language takes place, i.e. where the two systems (base and target) meet in the learner, we proposed (see the article mentioned under 2.1.) not only a simple "analysis of errors" but an ample study scientifically grounded and starting from statistically processed data, to be used as a starting point or at least as a means of control for all the other groups. "The sensitive points" of the contact of English and Romanian are identified in the learner, as far as possible on an unimpressionistic basis, mainly by experiments. Various experimental tests (compositions, dictations, translations, recording dialogues etc.) - given to a large number of "learners", so that there may be enough material for statistic processing - will lead to establishing the HSE characteristic of the Romanian speakers who learn English. We presuppose that the system, organized so as to show the rank occupied by each type of errors depending on its frequency but also on its grossness (from

the point of view of achieving communication), will also include errors that are not due only to the contact of the two languages, but are also due to other determinants. Among other things, these data will provide further arguments for corroborating the two methods: "the analysis of errors" and the comparison in abstracto of the two languages. Establishing the HSE brings us not only to explain errors but also to predict them, and the research helps to put forward hypotheses for further research.

2.3.2. The research for establishing the hierarchical system of errors started with Probe I (given by the English Department, especially D.Duţescu and E.Iarovici together with T.Slama-Cazacu), consisting of a composition starting from a set of pictures, given to 96 students in the second and fifth year of the English Department, in November 1969, and to 34 persons at the "People's University". Due to discussions concerning not only the system of categories for checking the compositions but also the very usefulness of this type of research and generally the experimental method, as well as due to the difficulty of carrying out research on such a scale without the contribution of a large group from the English department, the research stopped; the compositions started being checked in spring 1970 (going on till autumn) on the basis of the checking system advocated by F.B.Agard (it will be presented in the report made by D.Chiţoran).

Between December 1, 1970 and January 20, 1971 six collective experiments, with four different probes, were carried out during several experimental sessions. 487 students from the English Department from all the years (1198 papers in all) and twelve persons (grown-ups) attending the Intensive Courses organised by the University of Bucharest were tested (Of course, the figures correspond to the stages covered up to now and are only mentioned here in order to provide quantitative data referring to the activity of the group; they do not correspond to the final objectives in the framework of establishing HSE).

In figures, the activity carried out up to now can briefly be illustrated (including Probe I - in 1969-and Probes II 1970 and January 1971) as follows: four different probes were given (Guided composition illustrating a sequence of pictures, a free composition, a version of fifteen sentences, a dictation), the composition illustrating a set of pictures - the only probe given in 1969 - was repeated one year later with the same and different persons. A total number of 1340 papers have been col-

lected from 675 subjects (each person participating in one or several tests). The subjects have been students from all the years of study of the English Department (IFFL), grown-up pupils from the Bucharest People's University (only one preliminary probe), and grown-up pupils from the Intensive Courses.

We may consider that at present data collecting is at an end with students as far as written probes are concerned, to these being added probes in phonetics for spoken language for which we shall use the recorded speech from 12 persons in the course of free dialogues, as well as other oral probes - translations, free narrative (see 2.2.b) etc., as well as various probes done at various levels of learning English (see 3.)

From 2o to 3oth of January the papers have beeb clased, by Taina Duțescu, Florica Lucreția-Băncilă and Al.Petrovanu, according to a sigle system proposed by Tatiana Slama-Cazacu. (They will be corrected, and then the errors will be classified according to a system to be dealt with further.)

2.3.3. We shall briefly give some data about the 4 probes.

1. Guided composition illustrating a sequence of pictures (Comp.S.). The probe started by posting up or writing on the blackboard some instructions concerning the procedure (a narrative of 4o-5o lines was requested, which had to contain description, narration and a dialogue - rendering the thoughts of one of the characters in a monologue in direct speech, as well as a dialogue in indirect speech; Past Tense had to be used in the descriptive and narrative passages). Each student was given a sheet with the 10 images (making up a sequence representing an incident in a family), then oral instructions were read in which the content of the incident was briefly summarized in two Romanian sentences. A maximum of 5o minutes was allowed for this probe while putting down the time when each student handed the paper in. A number of 348 students took part in 1971 and 96 in 1969.

2. Free composition (F.Comp.). Subjects were required to write 3o lines with a narration and a dialogue, on the following subject: "Imagine that, after you have seen a theatre play, you go with one of your boy friends (or girl friends) to the Scala confectioner, and discuss on the show". The time for writting this composition was noted for each student within the limit of 3o minutes. 291 students from all the years participated.

3. Translation of 15 sentences from Romanian into English (Tr.). The sentences raised morphological and syntactical problems of the English language (the sequence of tenses, use of tenses and moods in English in comparison with Romanian - among others, Romanian subjunctive rendered by shall and let's -, negation, concord, prepositions, the oblique cases, the dative with or without to, the place of some adverbs, the there is - there are subject, tag questions, rendering of the Romanian impersonal reflexive by an English passive, etc.). The maximum time limit for this probe was 15 minutes (sufficient even for students from the Intensive Courses). 428 first to fourth year students and 12 students from the Intensive Courses participated.

4. Dictation (Dict.). The aim of this probe was not so much to establish the degree to which students possess the English orthography, as to check their capability to understand an oral message, that is to perceive correctly the speech of a native speaker and to retain the units of speech in the short time memory.

A text from The shrimp and the anemone (London, Faber and Faber, 1967, 5th edition [1944 1st ed.]) was proposed by V. Ştefănescu-Drăgăneşti, containing various degrees of difficulty, with narrative and descriptive passages and dialogue. The texts have been adapted for dictation by T. Slama-Cazacu with the aid of D. Chiţoran and M. Davis in the following way: it was first divided into three fragments, dictated according to three procedures, in order to verify the variable represented by the procedure of dictation (with previous knowledge of the text of each sentence, then dictation by large fragments-which were to be stored in the short time memory, that is under conditions similar to those of a conversation with a native speaker or, particularly similar to a radio listening situation- and "traditional" word by word dictation). Each sentence in the first two fragments had been divided into separate units for dictation (2-3 words in the first fragment, one sentence containing up to 9 words in the second fragment).

The text has been recorded on a tape (in very good conditions, with the aid of the technician Ecaterina Ioan), it being read by M. Davis (a native speaker), who has adjusted her rhythm after a subject with medium knowledge of English, who was writing under dictation. These conditions have been stated and controlled by T. Slama-Cazacu.

Each group of students (of 9-12 persons) has carried out the dictation probe in the Language laboratories in the Institute for Foreign Languages (the text being listened to not throught earphones but throught the loudspeaker). 131 first to fourth year students have participated.

2.3.4. All probes have been carried out in the course and seminar halls or in the Language laboratories of the IFLL, in the morning, and the students have been supervised by teachers of the English Department of the IFLL but in the course of all the tests it was necessary for one more teacher who was not pertaining to the English staff to be present for directing the experiment (Tatiana Slama-Cazacu).[x]

2.3.5. A great difficulty is that of correcting the probes not only because a rather large amount of work has to be devoted to it by teachers who are also continuing their current didactic activities, but also because it is necessary to assure consistency in the estimation of errors.

To this aim, part of this research group has based its activity on discussing a system of error analysis proposed by F.B. Agard (see below) and on finally mastering the revised system.

To verify the possibilities of unitary estimation in this working group, and to offer the possibility of reciprocal control, we have set forth the following procedure, partly applied, in December 1970: 5 probes (of the set of guided composition)were typed, with their errors, and then distributed to five persons who corrected them separately; then they confronted their estimations and discussed their system of tabulation (we propose the same procedure for the next stage, that of correcting proper).

3. The next stages of the research for establishing the HSE and perspectives in the activity of the research group for psycholinguistics

3.1. We propose it as our task to supplement our tests by a) recording of oral probes (finishing the application of these

x Conditions connected with insufficient room in the case of some group or inadequate equipment (for dictation) or, more generally, disturbances occurring in the ordinary timetable constituted as many difficulties in the carrying on of the probes and will make necessary the elimination of some papers from the total amount used in the statistic processing.

probes with students, applying of them to students from the Intensive Courses and to some pupils from secondary schools);
b) adding written probes applied to pupils from secondary schools and continuing to apply them to students from Intensive Courses.
The basic material for establishing the HSE will be constituted of the written papers, where we can better isolate the students competence in contrast with such variables as the emotional state inherent to oral communication, haste in expression, etc. The collecting of factual materials from students representing several levels of learning English will provide - for the time being - preliminary data for establishing some possible "approximative systems", as the variable "chronology", "stage of development" etc. must be controlled with great care, in well specified conditions and on a sufficiently great number of subjects, to eliminate contextual determinants pertaining to the influence of the type of test book, the method of teaching, the teacher etc. Also, we cannot at present make use of probes collected in other regions of the country - where one should first isolate the variables pertaining of the local dialect which make up the core of the source-language; however such probes could, for the time being, contribute to amplify the aberrant corpus.

3.2. In the next stage we propose to offer (by classifying the papers on special files) the first aberrant corpus of Romanian native speakers during their acquisition of English.

3.3. The most difficult and intense activity will have to concentrate on correcting the probes and tabulating the errors, an activity which should be finished in the next months, if the following conditions will be met.[x]

For error tabulation (after the system for classifying error has been settled up, with the aid of a group including besides the two heads D.Chiţoran and T.Slama-Cazacu, a number of highly qualified linguists), we propose to set up a small working group, of 5 persons, which shall exclusively deal with error tabulation for a restricted period of time. In this way we could assure a concentration in time - necessary to avoid vacillations in the evaluation made by one and the same person - as well as a unity of interpretation (very difficult to be achieved with a numerous group of research workers).

---

x To this aim we also propose that native English speakers should help in the correcting of probes (but under conditions able to assure a unity of criteria, and to prevent a further, more amplified diversity in the estimation of errors).

Afterwards, we propose to carry out the statistical processing of the data and the establishing of the HSE, on the basis of the frequency of various types of errors, this being done by a statistician specially hired to this purpose.

Interpretation of the causes of the errors will be done concomitantly with the statistical processing, by Dumitru Chiţoran and Tatiana Slama-Cazacu, who will also drew up the first material of synthesis.

3.4. The working group for psycholinguistics will be able to pass to other research work and experiments according to the possibility of getting the necessary equipment. We could foretell that the activity of this working group, even at the stage of establishing the HSE, will develop due to the recent setting up of the Laboratory of Psycholinguistic Research of the University of Bucharest, if a special equipment will be provided.

II. The elaboration of the system of criteria for classifying errors

Introducing an error analysis component in the contrastive analysis of English and Romanian implies an important amount of work and of time devoted to the elaboration and application of probes to Romanian learners of English as outlined in the previous paragraphs by Tatiana Slama-Cazacu.

Equally important is the analysis of these errors as they appear in the students' papers or recordings.

The correction of the papers and the tabulation of errors so as to be used for further research purposes has evolved exclusively on the members of the English Language Department involved in the project.

It was soon found out that, in order to insure a unitary character of error evaluation and tabulation, a model of linguistic analysis is as necessary as for the entire contrastive study itself.

During his presence in Bucharest in the Academic year 1969-70, prof. F.B.Agard delivered a set of lectures on the contrastive analysis of English and Romanian[x] and outlined a model for

x The contrastive analysis of English and Romanian - lectures by F.B.Agard, Bucharest, 1970 -. This is one of the first product of the Project of particular value both theoretical and practical. Copies of the set of lectures are available on request from the Director of the Project.

error analysis which he subsequently presented in a separate form as: A tentative model of English grammatical structure (for classification of errors). We reproduce below this model together with a few samples illustrating the application of the model to the analysis of errors.

Tentative model of English grammatical structure
(for classification of errors)

by F.B.Agard

Level	Constituent functions	Filler forms
UTTERANCE	Phonological	Intonation-(in phonology
	Grammatical	Sentence
SENTENCE	Nucleus	Clause
	Auxiliary	Question, Model V, Tense
	Attribute	Phrase, AvG, C
CLAUSE	Subject	NG, [S], [C]
	Predicate	VG
PHRASE		
Prepositional	Relator	Preposition
	Object (- Axis)	NG, AvG
Conjunctional	Relator	Conjunction
	Object (- Axis)	S, C
GROUP		
Nominal	Head	Noun Pron
	Determiner	Article, Demonstrative Possessive
	Quantifier	$AjG_{limiting}$
	Qualifier	$AjG_{descriptive}$
	Distinguisher	Ng, $AjG_{disting.}$ Ph
	Complement	AvG, Ph, S, C
Adjectival	Head	Adjective
	Quantifier	AvG, NG
	Complement	Ph, [S], [C]
Adverbial	Head	Adverb
	Modifier	Av, NG
Verbal	Head	Verbal Core
	Complement	
	Equivalent	NG, AjG, [S], [C]

	Object	NG, [S] [C]
	Attributive	AvG, Ph, [C]
VERBAL CORE	Head	Verb
	Aspect	Perfective, Progressive
	Negator	not
	Preverbal	AvG
LEXEME	Nucleus	Word (look in look up)
	Satellite	Word (up in look up)
WORD	Base	Stem (N, Aj, Av, V)
	Inflection	Plur., Pos, T, etc.
STEM	Root	Root Morphems
	Affix	Derivational Morpheme(N,Aj,V)
MORPHEME	(minimal unit)	entire lexicon
		Phonemes - (in phonology)

Key: Subscript - sub-category of "part of speech"
Underlined letters - abbreviation, e.g. Adverb - Av
Square parentheses - dependent (i.e. "Embedded" or "rank-shifts") structure.

Violations of obligatory selection

No. page	T e x t	Comment	Level	Function	Form	Sub-form
1:2	steep (in his reading)	Vst.→Aj.St.	Vst.	Aff.	Der. Mph.	- ed
6	couldn't refrained	∅ → ed	VC	H	Basic form	
	couldn't refrain her anger	Vi → Vt	VC	At.Cp	Ph.	from
9	unpolite	im→un	St	Aff.	Pref.	im
19	a long, a long time	I.Art.+	NG	Det	∅	
	The time is upside-down	D.Art.+	NG	Det	∅	
22	The door open suddenly	Past.-	S	Aux.	T	ed
23	(She was so) afraid to see her daughter in such a desperate state	at →to	Aj.C.	Cr.	Ph.	Prep.
24	She thought for years and years	Perf.-	VC	Asp.	Perf.	

While he was in Bucharest, F.B.Agard supervised the correction of a certain number of the student papers collected in 1969, according to this system, in which the following members of the English Department participated: Leucuţia Băncilă, Sanda Iliescu, Taina Duţescu, Elena Vendel, Domnica Spăriosu, Ioana Poenaru.

F.B.Agard's tentative model has obvious merits. While not falling rigorously within the boundaries of a given linguistic theory, it succeeds in incorporating the most important contributions brought by various schools to the description of language.

Essential for the entire system are the two concepts of function and form to be encountered with most modern linguistic theories. By introducing the concept of level of structure (almost equivalent to the concept of rank in the British school of linguistics) there is, in addition to the theoretical gain of having errors classified according to the structural level at which they occur, a practical value as well, since it decreases the possibility of error on behalf of the analysts themselves, in the sense that an error which is allocated erroneously to a wrong level (i.e. to an inferior level of structure), will be corrected at the next higher level.

However, as F.B. Agard himself has repeatedly suggested, this is only "a tentative" model to be revised and perfected as work goes on. There are many problems which can be raised in relation to this model.

To limit ourselves to only one instance, we would like to mention that according to the model, the clause level includes both finite and non-finite (nominalized) sentences. When such nominalizations are introduced by prepositions they can be relegated as well to the Prepositional group level, which is, of course, another level of analysis.

The system of errors separates lexical errors from grammatical ones. In fact the system (model) purports to account exclusively for those types of errors which are regarded as "violation of obligatory selection", that is it primarily deals with the grammatical errors.

As for lexical errors (presented as 'wrong free choices'), they are simply listed separately with no evaluations of their grammatical implications.

Here are two examples illustrating this point of view : (1) the form <u>couldn't seen</u> is a grammatical error irrespective of how wide the conception of grammaticalness can be; (2) a second

form she couldn't refrain her anger which actually appeared in one of the papers, was corrected with the form she couldn't refrain from expressing her anger. This correction is based on the assumption that the student actually wanted to use the verb refrain and did not know that it required the proposition from. Consequently the error was classed as a grammatical one since it implies the lack of the obligatory preposition from entailing the use of an ing-form.

But the error could equally well be considered a lexical one, the verb refrain was misused instead of restrain which is similar to it in meaning.

The main difference between these verbs is one of transitivity; while restrain is a transitive verbs, refrain is an intransitive one.

restrain - v.t. - hold back, keep under control, prevent from.

(a) restrain one's anger / one's mirth

(b) restrain a child from doing mischief

refrain v.i. - hold oneself back from

(a) Let's hope they will restrain from hostile action

(b) Please refrain from spitting in public places.

We can see that they share pattern (b) but not pattern (a).

While the correction of papers continued, it became necessary to revise F.B.Agard's model presented earlier for two different reasons.

We became increasingly aware of the fact that it furnishes an important amount of information on the linguistic nature of certain mistakes, which, if not totally irrelevant to the contrastive studies as such, had only a reduced relevance to it. We add to this theoretical consideration, the practical fact that the attempt to sollicit English errors from a great variety of Romanian learners resulted in hundreds of papers to be corrected. The imperious necessity to gain time led us to considering a simpler system of error analysis. As a result we are suggesting the following linguistic model for error analysis to be used in our future activity.[2]

---

2 The following persons took part in the elaboration of this model: Tatiana Slama-Cazacu, Dumitru Chitoran, Maria Manoliu-Manu, Sanda Golopentia-Eretescu, Mioara Avram, Alexandra Petrovanu, Mihaela Mosoia, Gheorghe Doca. Its principles were discussed at a meeting of the group mentioned above, where two systems were put forth. One - presented by Tatiana Slama-

Glgic	Text	Linguistic level where error occurs	Comment	Syntactic level	Filler form	Interpretation of the error	
						Comparison with Romanian	Explanation of the error
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Ph-Phono-logic G-Gram-matical L-Lexical	+super-fluous -missing form -replaced by x wrong order	Sentence Clause Phrase	(Attribute)+Nucleus Nom + VG Prep.+ Nom Conj + [S] [C]		
				Nom	VG [S] [C]		
				NG	(Pre-det)+(Det+Post-det + (Adj-s) [+N+(Post-head Mod)		
				Det	Art Poss adj Relative adj Poss noun		
				Pre-det	all, both, half		
				Post-det	Numerals few, less, least, more etc.		
				Adjs	Adj Adj + Adj modifier		
				Adj mo-difier	red		
				N	Count - Uncount Animate - Non animate Personal - Non personal		

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Verbal group Verbal	Aux+Verb+Adv Vi + Adj Nom Vb + (particle)		
				Vb	Vi + (Prep + Nom) Vt + Nom_1 + (Prep) + Nom_2		
				Aux	Tense + M + have-en + + be-ing		
				Tense	Present Past		
				M	can, may, shall, will, must		
				Adv.g	Adv Prep + Nom		
				Word	Base Inflection		
				Inflection	Nominal inflection { Gender, Number, Case Verbal inflection { Person, Number, tense etc. } — Concord features Adj, Adv } inflection + Comparison		
				Base Affix	Root+(Affix) nominal verbal		
				Transformations 1. Interrogation 2. Negation 3. Passivisation	Simple Interrogation Interrogative-Negative Tag questions		

The guiding principle simplifying the previous model has been prompted to us by the actual correction of an important number of papers proving that a morphological characterization of the error made by the learners is sufficient; considerations as to the syntactic function of the mistaken form is only secondary.

But above all, as already mentioned earlier, the necessity for simplifying the system is related to the vast aberrant corpus which has been collected.

As far as lexical errors are concerned we shall continue to obtain information on their nature by simply listing them, as before, while also suggesting to all error analysts to indicate selectional and subcategorization rules.

(continuation page 45)
Cazacu, Mihaela Mocoia and Gh.Doca-was devoted to the correction of errors made by foreign learners of Romanian participants in the Sinaia summer courses of Romanian, organized by the University of Bucharest (summer 1970), and the other was presented by D.Chiţoran and Alexandra Petrovanu. The model presented here is a synthesis of these two proposals.

SHORT REPORT
ON THE ZAGREB CONFERENCE ON ENGLISH CONTRASTIVE PROJECTS

(7-9 december 197o)

by D.Chiţoran and
T.Slama-Cazacu

1. The presence of the Romanian delegation at the Zagreb Conference on English Contrastive Projects, held in December 197o, is one of the activities worth mentioning within the framework of the Project on the "Contrastive Analysis of Romanian and English". In fact, at this Conference, it was for the first time that an international audience was informed on the Romanian project.

The Conference was organized by the members of the Yugoslav project on the "Contrastive Analysis of Serbo-Croatian and English", guided by prof. Rudolf Filipović, Head of the Institute of Linguistics of the University of Zagreb.

Besides the Yugoslav delegates from Belgrade, Ljubljana, Novi Sad, Sarajevo and Zagreb, foreign guests were present too: E.König, the representative of Stuttgart Project, as well as other specialists (A.de Vincens, K.R.Baush) from West Germany, J.Fisiak, Head of the Poznań Project, from Poland, D.Chiţoran and T.Slama-Cazacu from Romania, L.Dezső and J.Hegedüs from Hungary, W.Nemser from U.S.A.

Reports on the present stage of development of different projects were made (R.Filipović - Yugoslavia, J.Fisiak - Poland and T.Slama-Cazacu - Romania), as well as speeches on the methodology and the principles of contrastive analysis (D.Chiţoran, E.König, T.Slama-Cazacu) or on the results of the research-work in the contrastive analysis of certain languages (J.Hegedüs).

A particularly fruitful exchange of experience has been achieved with regard to both the theoretical and methodological aspect and the applied one.

The speakers have stressed the fact that since all the projects that are being carried out at present in Yugoslavia, Romania, Poland and West Germany, as well as those which are being initiated in Hungary and Czechoslovakia, have many common tasks, a close co-operation and permanent exchange of information is required. Thus one could benefit from the research-work done so far within the framework of a certain project and possible parallelisms could be avoided too.

2. The Romanian delegation played an active part at this Conference. The fact is well illustrated by the speeches and the report they gave and by their participation in the debates. Prof. dr. docent T. Slama-Cazacu made a speech on "Psycholinguistics and contrastive analysis" as well as the "Report on the activity within the framework of the Project of the Contrastive Analysis of English and Romanian". Conf. dr. D. Chiţoran presided over one of the sessions and delivered a speech entitled: "A model for second language acquisition".

Both the speeches and the report made by the Romanian delegation and their remarks in the course of the debates pointed out to the fact that the bounds of the traditional point of view regarding the theory and the methodology of contrastive analysis should be overstepped by means of studying (on an experimental basis) all the factors that influence the process of language acquisition. With this end in view, the audience was informed on the experiments initiated in our country. By means of a systematic study of groups of students and especially by means of experimental tests, this research aimed at recording phenomena of linguistic interference as well as other factors which influence the process of acquiring foreign languages. To a great extent, a psycholinguistical approach has been used, its main goal being the establishing of a hierarchical system of errors made by native speakers of Romanian when learning English. As it was pointed out in the conclusions drawn by R. Filipović, the organizer of the Conference, a great part of the participants expressed their interest in the Romanian point of view,

It is also worth mentioning the fact that even those projects which initially laid stress on a contrastive analysis "in abstracto" - that is, on a theoretical level exclusively - are now directed towards analysing errors, recording facts and experimenting, as the only true criteria of validating theoretical hypothesis. (This is the case of the Yugoslav and especially of the West German projects.)

3. During the Conference in Zagreb, the participants were informed directly (that is, by means of reports) only on the activity of the Romanian, Yugoslav and Polish projects. The Czech project is still in process of being organized and no representatives were participating, whereas the Hungarian one is only in an initial stage.

3.1. The Yugoslav project, whose activity started a few years ago, was presented by R. Filipović.

As one of the most ambitious and widest of the current undertakings in the field of contrastive analysis, the Yugoslav project on the contrastive analysis of Serbo-Croatian and English is of particular importance to similar projects elsewhere. It is with this purpose in mind that we shall try to present briefly the work done in this project up to date[1] (work which was started as far back as 1966.) In April 1967 a Project workers' seminar including participants from the English Departments as well as linguists from Yugoslavia's main universities was convened in Zagreb to discuss the question of the methodology to be used in the "Contrastive Analysis of Serbo-Croatian and English".

The elaboration of a contrastive grammar is a new thing in modern linguistics, so that any developments in the field represents at the same time a contribution both to theoretical and applied linguistics. No full-fledged theory or method has been worked out or adopted for the specific purposes of contrastive analysis.

In the Yugoslav project the prevailing mood in the choice of linguistic theory and method of analysis has always been a well-reasoned and reasonable one of combining the theoretical and empirical aspects of such an enterprise.

The method of analysis, as evinced from most of the materials published thus far, is essentially a translation one based on a corpus (fairly large) including a wide spectrum of language data and language styles.

Concerning the linguistic theory meant to serve as the framework for the analysis, the situation is best epitomised in P. Ivić's

---

1 This part of the report is based on R. Filipović's paper: the Serbo-Croatian English Contrastive Project (so far), delivered at the Zagreb Conference, as well as on talks with various members of the Yugoslav Project.

works: a compromise based on the infusion of classical structuralism with the elements of the generative approach.

From the very beginning, it was decided to base the work on a sizable corpus which was to serve as the source for any kind of generalizing statements in contrastive terms.

The Standard Sample of Present-Day Edited American English (known as The Brown Corpus) was chosen as the English source and was supposed to be translated into Serbo-Croatian in toto It was originally contemplated to select a corpus of similar size and composition for Serbo-Croatian as well, to be then translated into English. For technical and financial reasons however, it was necessary to give up the idea and consequently to base the work only on the Brown corpus of English and its Serbo-Croatian translation. More than that, even the Brown corpus had to be cut by half (approximately 500,000 words out of the total of 1,014,294 words).

The people in charge of the Yugoslav project believe that ever under these conditions the corpus can be considered as being representative enough and can therefore serve the purposes it was meant to serve in its more elaborate form. Also, they believe that given the quality of the translators the analysis will not be in any way impaired by the fact that the Serbo-Croatian corpus proper has been replaced by one resulting from the translation of English texts.

One may justifiably wonder however whether the translation method used in the analysis would not result in a lesser number of differences between the two languages than in the case of the study of an independent S.C. corpus of similar size and composition.

There were participants at the meeting (cf. E.König, from West Germany, and J.Fisiak, from Poland, who questioned the very need for a corpus in contrastive analysis studies since there is no objective way of assessing how large a truly representative corpus should be and that "it is very little that a corpus can tell us which we do not already know").

Since the Brown corpus is already prepared for computer processing by its compilers, W.N.Francis and Henry Kucera of Brown University, it was decided to have the corpus selected for analysis together with its Serbo-Croatian translation, processed by computer in order to arrive at concordances of a contrastive-translation nature between items in specific linguistic occurrences.

For the purposes of the contrastive analysis at the theoretical level a number of topics were selected under about 50 different headings meant to cover the entire phonological, grammatical and lexical structure of English, as the target language.

The topics were alloted to individual research workers and an important number of them have already been completed or are under completion.

The results of the work of each analyzer are published in the special publications: Reports (for interim reports on work in progress) and Studies (including the final product of each analyzer's work). Several Volumes of Reports and of Studies have appeared thus far.

The pedagogical implications, worked out by the analyzers themselves or in cooperation with specialists in language teaching methodology will be printed in a separate publication: Pedagogical Implications. No volume of this series has been published as yet, although many of the reports and studies published in the other publications of the Project discuss quite at length the pedagogical implications of their findings and hypotheses.

Interest in the analysis of errors has been present with the Yugoslav project since its very inception in 1966. The studies conducted thus far are limited to a number of three MA theses devoted to the analysis of the errors (syntactic and morphological) in the speech of learners of English in the Serbo-Croatian speaking area. It is envisaged to extend the research in this field by including a wider range of English language learners and by diversifying the methods of analysis. Also, special attention will be given to the testing of the findings and hypotheses resulted from the contrastive analysis of individual topics.

The final product of the entire project is contemplated under the form of a book (in two volumes) on the Contrastive Analysis of Serbo-Croatian and English summarizing and unifying the results of the individual studies. The book will also include a sample set of teaching materials meant to illustrate the utilization of the contrastive approach in the elaboration of linguistically motivated teaching materials.

3.2. Speaking about "The Poznań English-Polish Contrastive Study-Project", prof. Jacek Fisiak showed that the work on this project started a few years ago, an organized activity existing since 1967-1968. Until now, the methodology they used consisted

especially in a purely linguistical comparative analysis. Several articles have been published and several Ph.D. dissertations have been written on the subject(the latter not yet published). Since 1967 they have been working on an English Corpus (consisting of sentences taken from novels, magazines and scientific articles) which is used only as an auxiliary material. At the beginning of 1971, the Project was to be reorganized in co-operation with the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington D.C. Their plans for the next five years were also presented by J.Fisiak.

3.3. Delivering the paper "On the basic linguistic feature of Hungarian contrasted with English (Questions of "nominality"), Josef Hegedüs from the University of Economics, Budapest, stated that the basic difference between English and Hungarian is the more nominal character of English if compared with Hungarian, the latter being a typically verbal language.

3.4. Since prof. Gerhard Nickel, head of the Stuttgart Project, could not attend the Conference, this project was represented by Eckehard König. Though his paper was entitled "Transformational grammar and contrastive analysis" (A Report of the PAKS Project in Stuttgart), the German delegate stressed the fact that it was not a report on the research-work carried out in Stuttgart and it did not represent the point of view of the present direction of this project. To sum up, E.König stated that, on the one hand,"observations such as these are only possible if a contrastive analysis is carried out within the framework of a fully explicit model of linguistic description like transformational grammar" and,on the other hand,"T.G. is probably not the right framework for a contrastive analysis that aims at inspiring language instruction at an elementary level".

Nevertheless, the Stuttgart Project, which produced especially studies of purely linguistical contrastive analysis, has completely changed its orientation since January 1970, consistently trying to approach problems with practical aims in view.The latest PAKS volume (1970, nr.5), gathering essays written during the first semester of the year, indicates an approach exclusively directed towards research-work in schools, towards analysing errors (they call Lapsologie the analysis of errors, cf. p.iii). This volume is used in our report in order to illustrate the complexity of the different projects represented in Zagreb.

Starting from repeatedly noticing that practice indicates that the difficulties in the process of language acquisition do

not depend only on contrastive aspects (errors, which are not engendered only by interference appear very often), the Stuttgart Project considers now the analysis of errors not only as a modality of verifying contrastive analysis but especially as a complementary means of "finding a shorter way" (p.6). "It is only through close contact between research in applied linguistics and practice in schools that progress can be achieved",G.Nickel winded up. He also thought that "many experiments" should be made in this field (p.27). Until now, research-work has been carried out in 12 schools, with the help of 14 teachers and 8 researchers headed by G.Nickel (p.V,35). The following types of tests were given: dictations, compositions, translations (8oo lists with 4,ooo mistakes recorded). Their system of detecting errors does not seem to include many sub-classes or to have many nuances, and no statistical endeavour at establishing a hierarchical system of errors was mentioned. The results of the research-work carried so far are analyzed in the different papers which constitute volume 5 of PAKS. The aim of this group of researchers is to further analize errors from the point of view of evaluating them by means of a close contact between linguistics and school. (In the programme set up by G.Nickel, this analysis appears as being of three types: descriptive-lapsology, evaluating-lapsology and error-therapeutics)

At the end of the Conference, all the participants pointed out the utility of such meetings and recommended that such conferences should be organised every year; the next one has been schedulded for the autumn of 1971.

Underlining the interest produced by the Romanian point of view, as well as by the activity carried out so far within the framework of the Romanian Project, prof. R.Filipović, as the organiser of the Zagreb Conference, suggested that the 1971 Conference should be held in Romania. This proposal was received with much interest and seconded by many participants.

III. STUDIES

A. Methodological Studies

CONTRASTIVE STUDY IN ABSTRACTO, OR FUNCTION OF THE MEETING OF LINGUISTIC SYSTEMS IN THE LEARNER ?[x]

(Contrastive studies in the light of Psycholinguistics)

by Tatiana Slama-Cazacu

1. In the last few years, contrastive analysis has been subjected to criticism which went so far as to declare it completely worthless or to give up this methodology in linguistics applied to the foreign-language teaching - i.e. in the field for which it was created and where it has been just noticed that the various data (among others, the predictions relating to interference spots) supplied by contrastive linguistic studies have not been corroborated by practice, or have been denied by the facts and by the results observed in teaching foreign languages practice.

1.1. In an article published in collaboration with W.Nemser (1o), we not only made references to some of this criticisms, but also added some new one. The fact which seemed to us even more interesting was to verify if the very principle underlying contras-

x The exposé I shall make here summarizes most of the paper read at the Zagreb Conference on Contrastive linguistics projects (December 7-9 197o). At the same time,as regards various theoretical principles that I defend here, the present exposé is based on various ideas expounded in an article which I wrote in collaboration with W.Nemser,and which was published in "Revue Roumaine de linguistique", 197o, nr.2 (1o). Both this exposé and the one made in Zagreb differ from the above-mentioned article by some personal opinions which I shall advance, as well as by the points I am stressing here upon - among others, those concerning the "aberrant corpus", or concerning the various possibilities of error which appear besides those produced by the meeting of the two systems.

tive analysis can hold out against criticism. In other words, we wished to ascertain whether by making various essential modifications and defining a firm theoretical basis, contrastive analysis could be used efficiently in applied linguistics for foreign-language teaching.

In conclusion, we have succeeded in defining a theory and methodology which make contrastive analysis appear in a new form - to our mind, more consistent with the principles from which it initially started - namely the analysis of the contact between the two (base and target) languages in the learner. We have decided on this wording, by embarking upon an analysis of the conditions prevailing in foreign-language learning, an approach suggested by psycholinguistic theory and methodology in keeping with the personal conception I am advocating. It is significant, however, that these views and the methodological procedures we advocate coincide with similar tendencies displayed last year by various research-workers. These trends may be described in brief as follows: on the one hand, contrastive analysis is in vogue in various European countries (a vogue also stimulated perhaps by the critical studies which were published), and on the other hand methodology tends to alter, is no longer confined (as G.Nickel recently stated) to a "purely linguistic" study, and approaches an analysis of what is going on in the class-room, in the subjects learning a language - i.e., in fact, a psycholinguistic approach.

1.2. I shall mention very briefly some of the critical aspects which we consider involved in the traditional forms of contrastive linguistics analysis. In the first place, there are various errors of method resulting from contradictions, inconsistency with some principles it holds, or lack of precision in its very methodology (we are often present at debates concerning the corpus which should be resorted to - or, even if a corpus is necessary - or concerning the starting level - language or speech, the parole - or concerning the way of processing data, the procedure used in the analysis, etc.). These errors also arise from the fact that contrastive analysis is somewhat a "supertheory" (or perhaps an "extratheory"), which proposes rather few theoretical principles proper in a clear and consistent form. Contrastive linguistics gives complete freedom - just because it does not indicate anything in this direction - of choosing one or another linguistic theory for collecting and processing data: the choice may be made

among completely contradictory methodologies or theories (be it transformational or taxonomic theory and methodology). The fact that nothing is specified with regard to the way of collecting data or the nature of the corpus to be used in the analysis also leads to endless discussion and to waisting forces in making up corpuses which are ineffectual because, although they are sometimes very vast, they are far from representing all the possible achievements of a language (because selection is arbitrary and unilateral).

Of no small account is a deficiency which concerns the very substantiation of contrastive linguistics. In order to explain and predict the phenomena which appear in the practice of language teaching, contrastive linguistics uses a psychological double-concept, that of transfer-interference. However,this concept is used in an out-of-date form, corresponding to an earlier stage of psychology: this concept reflects a simple psychological model (an action in a single direction, from one habit to another, or a uniform action, irrespective of the situation - see 10, p.119). Moreover, in present scientific psychology transfer is considered a "controversial" (3, p.302) and hypothetical (11, p.116) concept. It has been noticed (cf. 5, p.24) that the principles established in the laboratory are often irrelevant in practice, inter alia just because these effects vary in respect to the subject's internal or external conditions. The way in which this psychological concept has been used in contrastive linguistics does not allow to formulate law-like principles, with a high degree of predictability.

1.3. But the deficiency I consider essential, the one from which the other weak points of contrastive studies arise, is the discrepancy between the initial starting principle (the discovery of points of similarity or difference between the base and the target language, which may produce negative or positive effects, facilitating the learning process: therefore, in fact the primary objective, that is an applied one, i.e. the improvement of foreign language teaching) and the way of making the respective studies (usually operating at the language level - as an abstract level - and not at the speech or "parole" level: in conclusion, data collection and manipulation in abstracto - abstraction implying detachment from the concrete teaching situation,limitation to deductions based on linguistic principles, on hypotheses, on

the competence of a linguist, on "examples" from monographs-hence a metalinguistic level - etc.). Consequently, an operation with data separated from the way in which the contact between languages materializes in the learners, in concrete situations (the latter serve only for validating hypotheses or even for directly applying - with trustful optimism in the deductive method - the predictions obtained by means of in abstracto analyses). The deficiency of this procedure on the logical level concretized itself in practice in the failure of various contrastive studies, giving rise to the criticism mentioned at the beginning of the present exposé; to sum up, the various predictions formulated by means of this procedure were not validated by practice, hence the practical aim was not attained for which these studies were initiated and for which so many efforts and often important budgets were invested (it is well-known that contrastive linguistics is an "expensive" one).

Initiated as an applied discipline, contrastive linguistics has lost, on a great extent, contact with the reality(that of the class-room or that of real communication), being based on too abstract models and over simplified when confronted with the concrete and extremely complex reality.

In fact, in real life where language learning and teaching take place many variables interfere (also cf. 1o), which may either produce a deviation in the way in which a rule established on an abstract material ought to be applied; or belong to a level different from the strictly linguistic one, of the contact between two languages; or bring the element of hazard and consequently the arbitrary when a single test is done, on a single "case" (for example the teaching"experience"of a certain teacher - hence the danger of a purely empiric research-work without any scientific basis-or, at the other pole, the deductive reasoning or even intuition or the abstract knowledge of a single - even when he is represented by a team - purely theoretical linguist).

2. The latter aspect (i.e. the variable referring to a mistaken generalization) is corrected just by scientific research rooted from the beginning in the concrete, but having the various variables under control and trying to eliminate the effects of hazard by extracting data from a multitude of cases, which make possible a statistical processing, therefore frequency, significant evaluations, hierarchical classifications and, finally, generalization based on these evaluations.

2.1. The other categories of variables we mentioned may be illustrated by means of a few examples given below, supplied by facts which became obvious to me after the above-mentioned article (1o) was published. Not only in abstracto contrastive analysis is unable to confidently point out in advance the frequent errors really made by the persons who are learning a foreign language starting from a certain base-language; not only is it unable to indicate the real hierarchical rank these errors have in the practice of learning, but, moreover, a strictly comparative contrastive study may lead to the overlooking of other determinants of learning and other mistakes which may appear, others than those caused strictly speaking by the structural peculiarities of the two systems which have come into contact.

Such as it is usually made - as a comparison based on intuition or on the linguist's knowledge -,contrastive analysis is far from exhausting all causes of difficulties in learning a language and, as such, the value it has for this purpose is to be clearly and unreservedly doubted (reticences may lead to waste of time, effort, and to scientific standstill). A survey of the various probes made in order to find out typical errors made by the students of the English department at the University of Bucharest shows that at this level the mechanical using of a pattern from the base language does no longer work to a great extent(the subjects have probably become conscious of these possibilities of error, they have a large lexical and grammatical stock etc.). At this level, many mistakes result from confusions between possible forms in the target language; or, one notices the avoidance of shades of meaning or of more precise utterances by resorting to clichés, to correct phrases (as a "block"), used as stereotypes.

2.2. In exchange, on the incipient levels of foreign-language learning, where the contact influences between the two languages manifest themselves very clearly, other types of mistakes will appear like those which concern the typical generalization of the learning process, namely the application as a pattern of a form learned before in the foreign language even in the cases when in the respective language there are no such regular paradigms. Of course, there is a common human procedure which guides language-learning and some of these "universal" peculiarities can be discovered both in the adult who is learning any foreign-language, and

in the child who is learning his mother tongue. For instance the "contamination" phenomenon, due to the interpretation of the language (Slama-Cazacu 15; 16) by subjects who do not have an adequate knowledge of certain spheres or details of the respective language (milometru - from milimetru "millimetre" + kilometru "kilometre" - or fericita - from fericit "happy" + felicitat "congratulated" - noticed in a Romanian child; similar facts may also be noticed with adults, e.g. the form noticed in Romanian more than 20 years ago: cumperativă -from(a)cumpăra "to buy"+cooperativă"co-operative stores").Or the phenomenon of language "regularization", that is of generating some forms which are divergent as compared to the vocabulary of the respective language,in its historical evolution, but which are logical for the human being - either a child or a grown-up - who, in spite of his poor knowledge of this thesaurus, produces forms on the basis of a paradigmatic rule he has inferred himself. With some foreign grown-up people who are learning Romanian we noticed the following mistake: (să) mănîncăm for the 1st person pl. [instead of să mîncăm "let us eat"] , as a generalization of (să) mănînc (1st person sg. "let me eat"). In the Romanian children's speech (15), from the present tense form sînt "I am" there appear aberrant variants of the past tense type such as: sînteam, sînteai ... [instead of eram, erai "I was, you were" ...] (the same mistakes might be made by foreign grown-ups when learning Romanian,in case they make use of a wrongly organised textbook and their native language does not belong to the Romanic ones - or, may be, even not to Indo-European ones). Anyhow, one can come across errors like: go/go-ed [instead of went] , or spend/spend-ed [instead of spent] etc., in the learning of English not only by non-native grown-up speakers (Germans, Czecks etc. - cf. Dušková 4, pp. 19, 21) but also by children having English as their mother tongue (Brown 2, p.31; Jersild 6, p.421; cf. also goose/gooses).

A contrastive analysis performed on the basis of the description of the two systems in abstracto is unable to disclose such a source of errors, consequently it proves to be insufficient.

These errors are, in fact, caused by a general variable,which is the individual stock acquired in a learning process: from the point of view of the psychological processes involved, a (super) generalization operates in this case, leading even to the drawing out of a rule; from the point of view of the determinant language, one influence might be pointed out as a single one - that of the

individual stock previously acquired in the target language; from the point of view of the learning process itself, it implies the dynamic action of a prior stage over a subsequent one. If the Dutch children who learn French make errors like those mentioned by A.G. Sciarone (14, p.116) : je suis un livre, j'ai malade, despite of the existing similarity between French and Dutch concerning the pair of verbs avoir/être and hebben/zijn, the cause of errors consists in the two French forms assimilated as a couple of associated terms (and of concepts too), hence the individual stock in French brings about distortions in performance within the framework of the same language (it may be also reasonably claimed that the similarity between the two systems could have led to the prediction of a facility in the learning process). The previous stock in the target language may also exercise a negative influence over the Dutch children, who easily learn to use the partitive article in French (je n'ai pas de livres) - without being affected by the dissimilarity -, but make mistakes when they produce the negative form: il n'a pas de raison, je n'ai pas de soif. A.G. Sciarone (14, p.117) concludes that: "A difficulty like this can of course never be predicted by Contrastive Analysis ". In this case it is also the French structure previously assimilated (i.e. the use of de) that influences the performance in the Dutch language, and not the Dutch structures.

Therefore, the errors brought about by the meeting of the two systems are not the only ones which appear in the learning of a foreign language, and at any rate they are noticed especially in the first stages (this hypothesis should be validated by further investigations).

3. Considering that contrastive analysis may be useful, after having eliminated its theoretical and methodological deficiencies, and that practice requires a constructive criticism or evaluation, we have tried to get to a procedural adjustment of contrastive analysis, to an improvement in its methodology, and even to a better theoretical delimitation of contrastive linguistics. We have tried to set out some basic principles which, in fact, reformulate the contrastive theory and methodology. This has led us to what we called "contact analysis" - the analysis of the phenomena that arise, in the learner himself, from the contact of the two linguistic systems (base and target) involved in the process of foreign-language learning and teaching. In this way, our paper represents

an attempt to supply a theoretical and methodological basis, a better means of validation through the permanent contact with reality, and in fact a corpus of control for the other aspect of contrastive analysis, the in abstracto comparative study of the two systems.

4. A concatenation of arguments I am going to present briefly and syllogistically may be looked upon as the logical argumentation of the starting point of this conception and in fact of its essential principles.

If contrastive linguistics is a field closely linked to practical reality (and nobody can deny that it was this reality that it started from and was conceived for), if its main purpose is to help language learning and teaching, if its ultimate results should be applied to the reality of the process of language learning and teaching - where the two systems meet within the learner-, and if it must contribute to improving this process by predicting the sensitive points of this contact, it stands to reason that it must take this reality into account in the course of the entire investigation. I can see no argument against this conclusion- the more so as no deductive procedure or model has ever demonstrated, in this field, its predictive capacity -, i.e. that this methodology should not ignore the actual situation and mind it from the very beginning of the investigation, in those steps preliminary to the moment when it should offer to the class-room the results obtained by confronting the two systems.

4.1. Our conception starts from the analysis of the situation created in the process of foreign-language teaching, and which should be considered as a communication situation (cf. also 16), in which different messages, representing concrete performances of some codes (base language A - target language B), are circulating between emitter and receiver. I mention that, by applying a previous personal model (19; 20), we consider the "learner" as the bearer of an "individual linguistic system" - which represents his own stock, created on the basis of a continuous selection and inner organizing of the elements taken from the base code (mother tongue) -, a system which materializes at any moment of communication through "the individual linguistic facts" or the messages. When learning a foreign language, the same process of "gradual" selection (usually guided, in the course of teaching) is taking place, which - by passing through different

stages of approximation and tending to the target code - will achieve the individual linguistic system of a person. No doubt that an analysis in its initial stage (as a matter of fact, the only possible one at the concrete level of gathering data or at the level of the researcher's contact with the linguistic facts) refers to the individual facts. But by accumulating data from a collectivity of individuals and by their evaluation (statistical, to a great extent), one can easily get to the level of generalizations, to "speech" facts (the Saussurian parole), that are a more concrete achievement of language, at the level of collectivity.

On the other hand, the foreign-language learning and teaching process should be considered in its development, in the dynamics of learning, which presumes stages of approximation of the norms of the target code. Consequently, we must take into account the alterations the message might undergo function of the persons involved in this situation and firstly function of the "pupil", who is an emitter-receiver sui generis, because he starts from zero as far as the target code is concerned and his messages are continuously modified by the fact that he is gradually assimilating this code, but on the basis of a rather developed stock, and depending on the different determinants of the learning psychological process. Hence the aberrant messages as against the norm of the target code. To take into consideration all these contextual determinants of the messages which appear, as well as the various influences and their results, represents a psycholinguistic approach in the study of the respective phenomena. Such an approach does not mean a limited or optional study - as the one which simply consists in applying the principles of a certain theory but it is motivated and even imposed by the fact that the elements involved are human beings (pupil, teacher, author of a manual, etc.) exposed to the inherent influences peculiar to human psychology - this being inevitably the only channel through which all phenomena are generally passing that concern language teaching and any special study, as the contrastive one. No modelling of this situation can elude the existence of the human psychology and nobody has the right to assume, in the model, an emitter-receiver built in abstracto, like a computer or a formal system entirely detached from the so complex human psychology, influenced by contextual determinants and by a dynamics, concerning language learning, still insufficiently known.

The theory and its methodology we referred to as "contact analysis" implies the study of the phenomena which appear in the process of contact between the two systems "in the pupil", who is a human being endowed with a mind subjected to contextual determinants and the psychical laws of learning. In this long sequency that is the process of learning a foreign language, many phenomena arise due to the meeting of the two systems (this being the basis of contrastive analysis and the reason of its survival), but there are also many other phenomena which are not the result of this contact and might never be disclosed by traditional analysis, in abstracto. That is why the theoretical conception and its methodology we maintain emphasize the necessity of taking into consideration the entire situation and using those procedures that can help us reveal all the learning determinants.

4.2. The methodology we advocate, consequently, takes permanently into account the learning situation - that is "the pupil" - as part and parcel of his determinant context.

4.2.1. The procedures of investigation have as a purpose to determine objectively and as much as possible experimentally the real conditions in which the contact between the two languages takes place, first of all the "sensitive points" of this contact (our methodology aims at completing if not getting rid of the empiric, unscientifically controlled and often impressionistic observations, included in the so called "class-room experience" of one teacher, in personal contexts). In order to generalize and validate the data with a view of prediction, we advocate systematical procedures (observation and experiment, in a study both longitudinal and transversal) including different written and oral probes, both monologue and dialogue etc., in different natural and laboratory conditions, applied to a rather great number of subjects in various conditions, so that a statistical processing may enable us to establish the hierarchical system of errors typical of the pupils acquisition of a target language starting from a specifical base language, in different stages of the learning process.

When processing data and establishing this system, notice is taken not only of the simple frequency of errors but also of their gravity or their communication value (to what extent they are prejudicial to communication). Thus the quantitative analysis is controlled by a qualitative analysis, and that is one of the

most essential differences between the usual way of error analysis and the way we are presenting it according to the conception exposed above.

4.2.2. No doubt that we do not mean that contrastive analysis should limit itself to simply establishing the hierarchical system of errors. Simultaneous and subsequent observations and experiments aim at discovering the general and the special conditions - for a certain base language - in which a foreign language learning occurs, and also to achieve an in-depth study of the different sensitive points or other factors too (both by pure linguistic comparisons and by psycholinguistic, psychologic, pedagogic experiments, etc.). We also want to point out that the whole series of procedures leading to the hierarchical system of errors serves (and ought to serve) as a basis for subsequent studies. In this way means of selection are offered, using objective criteria, of distinguishing the sensitive points in the hierarchy of their importance, which are to be examined on the basis of a strictly linguistic contrastive analysis (this approach is solving the problem: exhaustive or selective study, and on the basis of what criteria - as the topics chosen for study are to be selected in an economical and objective nonimpressionistic way). These results also supply data for completing the strictly contrastive analysis (data concerning other determinants besides mere interference of the two systems). The data could also help to formulate hypothesis of further laboratory investigations, i.e. they will reveal those aspects that could make up the themes of other experimental in-depth studies, both psycholinguistic and linguistic.

Finally, the results will offer the possibility of arriving at a generalization on an objective basis, concerning a human typology of the psycholinguistic behaviour in the process of foreign language acquisition . Consequently, such an investigation and generally contrastive analysis based on these principles combines the theoretical approach with the concrete one, the fundamental investigation with the applied one, and each of them profits from the other (applied investigation takes advantage of a theory, and the results of applied research will certainly be interesting for theoretical linguistics).

4.2.3. One of the most important contribution of this investigation lies in the possibility of making up a <u>real corpus</u> of <u>parole</u> for the subjects having a basic language (for instance Ro-

manian) and learning another target language (for example English). but arriving at the general level of the collectivity owing to the fact that a statistical processing and tests of significance are used. Thus the conception I have recently come to recommends, besides the normal corpus, the use of an aberrant one - at least, as a corpus of examples offering means of control and suggestions-; the normal corpus itself is to be established however on the basis of the principles of collecting data also from real communication, hence facts pertaining of the level parole and implying even different systems of signs as auxiliary to the linguistic (verbal) code. The aberrant corpus - which is, in fact, an auxiliary material, comprising the most frequent errors(without being exhaustive) -could permanently serve the analysis in abstracto for control, having as an annex, in order to appreciate the value of the errors, the standard of a hierarchical system of errors possible for the speakers of the respective basic language, as well as indications concerning the internal dynamics, i.e. of the stages or of the "approximative systems", during the learning of a certain target language.

5. The answer that I personally propose to the question included in the title of this paper does not consist in a choice of one of the two parts of the question, but it advocates the idea of combining the analysis we referred to so far as "in abstracto" (which is to become however a linguistic analysis devoid of deficiencies of artificiality) with the analysis "in the pupil".Taking into consideration the applied purpose of contrastive linguistic proper, the analysis performed with comparative linguistic procedures should amend its theoretical basis and radically change its procedural orientation in the sense of permanently taking notice both in its final aim and in its methodological principles the reality represented by the learning situation and real communication (the level "parole", and even individual facts- "cases" included however in the conditions that determine them-contextual variables, nonverbal components etc.).

References

1 Bourquin,G. (Nancy), - Réflexions à propos de la linguistique contrastive, Université de Bucarest, Cours d'été et colloques scientifiques, Sinaia, 1970, p.18.

2 Brown,R., Cazden,C., Bellugi-Klima, Ursula - The child's grammar from I to III, in J.Hill (ed.), Minnesota Symposia on child psychology, vol.II, Minneapolis, Univ.of Minnesota Press, 1968, pp.28-73 [mimeo].

3 Drever,J. - A dictionary of psychology, Middlesex, 1952 [ed. 1965], s.v. Transfer of training.

4 Duskova, Libuse - On sources of errors in foreign language learning, "IRAL", 1969, 7, no.1, pp.11-36.

5 Jakobovits,L. - Second language learning and transfer theory: a theoretical assessment, Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Modern Language Association, New York, 1968 [mimeo].

6 Jersild,A. - Child psychology, Englewood Cliffs,Prentice-Hall, ed. 6, 1968.

7 Nemser,W. - Approximative systems of foreign language learners, in R.Filipović (ed.), The Yugoslav Serbo-Croatian-English Contrastive Project, B. Studies I, Zagreb,1969, pp. 3-12.

8 Nemser,W. - Contrastive linguistics at the Center for Applied Linguistics, "The linguistic reporter", 1970, 12, no.3, pp.1-5.

9 Nemser,W. - Recent trends in contrastive linguistics, Paper at the Second Canadian Symposium on Applied Linguistics, University of Ottawa, 1970 [mimeo].

10 Nemser,W. and Slama-Cazacu,Tatiana - A contribution to contrastive linguistics (A psycholinguistic approach:contact analysis), "Revue roumaine de linguistique", 1970, 15, no.2, pp.101-128.

11 Oléron,Geneviève - Le transfert, in P.Fraisse, J.Piaget (eds.), Traité de psychologie expérimentale, IVth vol., Apprentissage et mémoire, Paris,P.U.F.,1964, pp.115-178.

12 Richards,J.C., - A psycholinguistic measure of vocabulary selection, "IRAL", 197o, 8, no.2, pp.87-1o2.

13 Scherer,G. and Wertheimer,M. - A psycholinguistic experiment in foreign-language teaching, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1964

14 Sciarone,A.G. - Contrastive analysis - Possibilities and limitations, "IRAL", no.2, pp.115-132.

15 Slama-Cazacu,Tatiana - Relaţiile dintre gîndire şi limbaj în ontogeneză, 3-7 ani ("Relationships between thought and language in ontogenesis"), Bucureşti, Ed.Academiei R.P.R., 1957, pp.323 foll., 413.

16 Slama-Cazacu,Tatiana - Observaţii şi cercetări experimentale cu privire la contaminări ("Observations and experimental research on contaminations"), "Studii şi cercetări lingvistice", 1956, nr.3-4, pp.2o7-233.

17 Slama-Cazacu,Tatiana - Introducere în psiholingvistică ("Introduction to psycholinguistics"), Bucureşti, Ed.Ştiinţifică, 1968.

18 Slama-Cazacu,Tatiana - La linguistique appliquée et quelques problèmes psycholinguistiques de l'enseignement des langues, "Cahiers de linguistique théorique et appliquée", 1968, vol.V, pp.221-246.

19 Slama-Cazacu,Tatiana - Code levels, interdisciplinary approach and the object of psycholinguistics, "Revue roumaine des sciences sociales - Psychologie", 197o, no.1, pp. 87-96.

2o Slama-Cazacu,Tatiana - Eléments de la communication, niveaux du code, et le triade langage - langue - parole, in Linguistique contemporaine (dedicated to E.Buyssens), Bruxelles, Ed.Inst. de Sociologie, 197o, pp. 11-25.

21 Slama-Cazacu,Tatiana - Psycholinguistics and contrastive studies paper at "The Zagreb Conference on English Contrastive Studies" Zagreb, 7-9 decembrie 197o [mimeo],

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS : QUESTIONS OTHER THAN LINGUISTIC THEORY AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

by Dumitru Chiţoran

1.oo. From its very incipient stage the discussions and debates related to the Contrastive Analysis Project of English and Romanian have been centred mainly on theoretical problems, to be more specific, on the choice of a given linguistic theory to serve as a theoretical framework for the contrastive study and on the methodology to be used in the contrastive research.

This, of course, reflects the present situation in contrastive studies when it has become clear that, on the one hand, none of the existing linguistic theories can be said to meet all the requirements of contrastive analysis and, on the other hand,no methodology has been worked out and validated by practical research in the field.

The Romanian-English Contrastive Analysis Project has a clear pedagogical orientation as envisaged in the Cooperation Protocol between the University of Bucharest and the Centre of Research in Phonetics and Dialectology of the Romanian Academy on the one hand, and the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington,on the other. Its aim is to point out the salient structural traits of English and Romanian as evinced by a contrastive analysis and, on that basis, to establish a teaching strategy of the two languages with regard to such matters as: the organization and programming of the language facts in the teaching process, the elaboration of linguistically oriented teaching materials, etc.

It follows from the above that the contrastive analysis of English and Romanian is regarded as having a well defined practical finality. Hence the stipulation that all theoretical studies should include an analysis of the pedagogical implications, of the research and the elaboration of specimen teaching materials.

This is not meant in anyway to belittle or minimize the theoretical interest of the work to be done. On the contrary, from the

very beginning our work has been characterized by the constant attempt to overcome the limitations and shortcomings of contrastive analysis in its traditional form and thus to contribute to the clarifications of the theoretical problems involved in this kind of linguistic study.

The essence of the subsequent remarks is to point out that in addition of the above mentioned questions of linguistic theory and research methodology there are other problems and questions to be faced in a contrastive study, problems whose consideration is necessary even at thir early stage if we want to have a clear idea of the nature and scope of the work to be carried out.

The problems to be considered below are the following:

(a) Contrastive analysis in the light of new theoretical developments in linguistics,psychology, and language learning.

(b) The distinction made between linguistic grammar and pedagogical grammar and the implications of this distinction for contrastive grammar.

(c) The role of observation, experiment and error analysis in contrastive studies.

2.oo. It is well known that contrastive analysis as a particular field of research in applied linguistics appeared in conjunction with a specific linguistic theory associated to a given psychological outlook and a specific hypothesis on language learning processes. The linguistic theory in question is descriptivist structuralism in its neo-Bloomfieldean form which lays particular emphasis on the primacy of speech over writing, the systemic nature of language as exhibited by its phonological and grammatical systems, the relegation of meaning to other sciences since the understanding of language as a system of conveying meanings was regarded as more important than the knowledge of the meanings themselves.

2.1.o. The psychological theory which was associated to this linguistic theory was, of course, behavioural conditioning already present in Bloomfield's "Language". The association between descriptivist structuralism and behaviourism(actually an early type of Thorndikean associationism (was regarded as "a historical accident" in the sense that there is no necessary interconditioning between the two (Wardaugh, 197o). In actual fact however, it can be perfectly explained in terms of the entire atmosphere prevailing at the time in the humanities in America.

Essential to this psychological theory of learning are several general principles, the most important being the following:

- language learning implies mainly the matching of appropriate responses to verbal stimuli;
- the acquisition of language consists in the formation of linguistic habits;
- the formation of new linguistic habits implies phenomena of interference resulting from the conflict with previously acquired habits;
- the newly acquired habits have to be constantly reinforced in various ways in order to be kept active in use;
- any generalization on the workings of language which the learner may become aware of is of an inductive nature.

This has resulted in the language learning theory known as the audio-lingual habit theory, which has become the prevailing one during the last decades.

2.2.0. New developments both in linguistics and psychology have led to the necessity to revise some of the generally accepted tenets vis-à-vis language learning.

2.2.1. In linguistics, the outstanding development is, of course, the apparition of generative grammar as a theory of linguistic competence in which the emphasis is switched to the creative use of language rather than its manipulative use.

In many ways, generative grammar is to be regarded as a reaction to the simplistic behaviourism and associationism of structural descriptivism. It is no wonder therefore that all those language teachers who declared themselves sceptical about the audio-lingual method, should jump to generative transformational grammar as an answer to their problems.

The use of generative grammar in the practical teaching of languages is a highly controversal problem. Chomsky himself proved sceptical about its pedagogical use. As far as contrastive analysis is concerned, however generative grammar acquires a particular importance since its use as a model in contrastive studies even if not as a unique model, is hardly arguable.

2.2.2. The parallel development in psychology is represented by the so-called cognitive code-learning theory according to which language learning is a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical and lexical patterns as a body of knowledge (J.B.Carrol, 1969).

The formation of habits as automated responses to verbal stimuli is thus replaced by the learner's conscious understanding of the structure of language since it is believed that conscious control over its structure facilitates its creative use in proper speech situations.

The cognitive code-learning theory has to be considered against a different psychological background namely that of Gestalt theory which emphasizes the perceiving of items to be learned as elements in integrated structures rather than individual elements associated by some kind of conditioning.

It has been pointed out (R.Wardhaugh, 1970) that some kind of union can be expected in the near future between generative grammar as a linguistic theory and cognitive psychology, with a far-reaching influence on language learning and language teaching.

However, there is every reason to believe that the audio-lingual theory and the cognitive code-learning theory will soon appear as being complementary rather then oppositional. In fact, psycho-linguists (W.Rivers, 1968) have already pointed out that there are two different aspects of language learning - the manipulatory stage, which implies the use of linguistic elements appearing in fixed relations and integrating themselves in closed systems and an expressive (or creative) stage which allows for an infinity of variations.

It may well be the case that while the audio-lingual method should prove adequate for the manipulatory stage of language learning, the cognitive code-learning theory should prove more adequate for the acquisition of the creative aspects of language use.

2.2.3. Nevertheless, even if the question of choice between the two language learning theories may not be put, it would still be necessary to assess the role of contrastive analysis with each of them.

It is obvious that in the case of the audio-lingual habit theory contrastive analysis is in the first place helpful to the teacher as a scientific prerequisite of his teaching strategy and methodology. Based on the findings of contrastive studies, the teacher is able to plan his teaching in such a way as to place the emphasis on those sensitive points where mistakes are predicted by the analysis, given the dissimilarity in the structure of the two languages. Equally helpful is the contrastive analysis for

the elaboration of the teaching materials. In both instances however, the student need not be presented overtly with the findings of the theory.

The cognitive code-learning theory on the contrary requires that these findings be explained overtly to the student as the only way to lead to conscious control of the linguistic structure. One of the main tenets of the audio-lingual method: "teach the language, never teach about the language" is thus not only questioned but altogether rejected. Several arguments may be brought in favour of this approach. In the first place, the study of language learning has clearly indicated that the conscious presentation of difficulties leads to a facilitation in the learning of the respective linguistic facts. Secondly, a second language is usually taught in school where the learner is already familiar with certain learning techniques.

3.0.0. In any case, a new problem arises for contrastive analysis, a problem which has not been dealt with in a proper manner. The problem is related to the manner in which the findings of contrastive analysis are to be presented to the language learner.

The form of any linguistic insights which are going to be presented to the learner should, of course, be assessed pedagogically.

The distinction between linguistic grammars and pedagogical grammars is not a new one, although the two types of grammar have never been kept apart as strictly as modern grammarians would like them to be now. In the past, even the monumental grammars of English such as those of Jerpersen or Curme combined the two aspects in a more or less obvious manner.

There are however important distinctions both in form and in approach between a linguistic grammar and a pedagogical one (Sol Saporta, 1966). Only too often have we witnessed attempts to apply in the class-room linguistic insights or linguistic techniques of analysis without the modifications required by their pedagogical evaluation. To mention only two glaring instances, this was the case of the nominal pair technique and it is now the case of the transformation technique.

A linguistic grammar as an account of linguistic competence of ordinary speakers is meant to enumerate the grammatical sentences of a language and to asign a grammatical description and a semantic interpretation to each of them (Chomsky, 1965).

A pedagogical grammar, on the other hand is aimed at developing a given linguistic ability - namely the ability to interpret and / or to produce sentences. It basically represents therefore the conversion of the linguistic insights provided by linguistic grammar into an efficient teaching methodology. In the construction of a pedagogical grammar it is necessary to start from a linguistic theory which provides its content i.e. what is to be learned, and combine it with a given language learning theory which provides its form.

It needs not be repeated here that the findings of a given linguistic theory cannot determine entirely a practical teaching method.

3.0.1. The dichotomy linguistic (theoretical) vs pedagogical has a direct relevance for contrastive studies as well. The results of the research, irrespective of the linguistic theory of the research methodology being employed, the willingness to recourse to insights and data provided by other interdisciplinary sciences such as psycholinguistics, have to be presented to the learner in a pedagogical manner either directly or incorporated into the teaching materials. Certain contrastive studies now under way such as the Yugoslav one, solve that problem by requiring researchers to indicate the pedagogical implication at the end of their studies, in cooperation with specialists in teaching methodology. Also, a set of specimen teaching materials based on the findings of the contrastive analysis will be produced.

The Romanian project goes very much along the same lines, i.e. it is required of all specialists to accompany their studies with a detailed description of the methodological implications they have for the teaching process and to give practical hints for the teachers as to the best pedagogical procedure in presenting a given grammatical problem to the class. The production of teaching materials is also part of the Romanian-English language project. Since the majority of our project researchers are members of four Romanian universities, all of them possessing a good teaching experience, there are good grounds to believe that these aspects of the project will be carried out successfully.

Nevertheless, the question remains open as to whether the contrastive analysis should be elaborated first on a strictly theoretical basis while the needs of the learner and the practical needs of the language class will be considered at a subsequent

stage or, on the contrary, ample consideration should be given to these matters during the very process of elaborating the study. Equally, important, in view of what the cognitive-code learning theory maintains, is the question of whether, there is any profit to be derived from explicitely presenting the findings of the contrastive analysis to the learner. Past teaching experience seems to indicate that this may very well be the case since it has been observed that the overt presentation of difficulties in learning tends to lessen the task of overcoming them.

It is, therefore, necessary to clarify already in this stage in our work, to what extent the contrastive grammar will also be a pedagogical contrastive grammar.

4.o.o. The last problem to be dealt with in the present paper is related to the place and role of direct observation and experiment in contrastive analysis.

To begin with, it has often been wondered to what extent is contrastive analysis more efficient and more reliable in predicting difficulties in second language acquisition than the actual examination of student errors as observed in the foreign language class. This is particularly the case of foreign languages which are and have been taught on a wide scale in a great number of countries and to a great number of people either within or without the school system.

This explains why many language teachers were not overenthusiastic about the prospects of contrastive analysis since in most cases it did not provide data they were not already familiar with, while in other cases it failed to signal difficulties which they were actually facing in the class-room.

It was concluded by some that contrastive analysis,when conducted at a theoretical level, may retain some practical value only as a preliminary phase in the elaboration of a teaching programme for an "exotic" foreign language which is typologically different from the native language of the learner. Such a study would compensate, among other things, the lack of tradition and experience in teaching the respectivelanguage.

On the other hand those who strongly believe in the predictive and explanatory power of contrastive analysis see no need for accompanying direct onservation and experiment in the classroom.

4.o.1. The relationship between the two, however, should be one of complementarity..

The teaching and learning of foreign languages will not doubt benefit from any advances in the fields of linguistics or the related disciplines of psycho- and socio-linguistics, as well as by advances in such applied fields as contrastive analysis.

But there can be no doubt about the great profit to be derived in the teaching of foreign languages from direct observation and experiment conducted in the actual language class.

We need more data on the foreign language learning process in order to obtain a better understanding of its nature, of the complex factors implied in this process.

An analogy has often been alluded to between education and medicine and I believe that this analogy holds very well as far as language learning. Indeed, both in medicine and in language learning there is room both for carefully conducted experiments aimed at validating certain hypotheses, and for the direct observation of "cases" as evinced in actual teaching and learning situations.

The empirical study of the realities of the foreign language classes is of paramount importance at the present moment. This is a field in which the gathering of information is only at an initial stage so that it is too early to start that "detachement" of the researcher from the object of his research, in order to make possible the deductive reasoning and the generalisations necessary for its broader understanding. Departing oneself too widely from the actual learning process presents the great danger of going too far astray with one's generalization.

In fact the necessity for the empirical study in foreign language teaching and learning is also pointed out by the distinction made in generative grammar between linguistic competence and linguistics performance. A linguistic theory such as generative grammar represents a model of the linguistic competence of speakers, it is not a theory of their linguistic performance. Linguistic competence underlies linguistic performance and explains part of its problems, but it never explains linguistic performance in its totality since there are so many additional factors implied in the creative use of language. A full theory of linguistic performance is far from having been outlined, however broadly, while the building of a theory of linguistic performance in a foreign language is at its very initial stage.

Contrastive analysis if it really wants to prove useful in the teaching and learning of foreign languages and not be simply

limited to the itemazition of similarities and differences between the linguistic systems (in patterns, which are as neat as possible) cannot ignore these aspects of the problem it concerns itself with.

This is one of the directions in which the English-Romanian contrastive project intends to depart most considerably from the classical type of contrastive analysis. One important aspect of this endeavour is represented by the research now under way meant to establish a hyerarchical system of errors made by Romanian learners of English (W.Nemser and T.Slama-Cazacu, 1970). This will be continued by more specialized experiments by making use of a psycholinguistic methodology, while large-scale observation and experimentation is envisaged in a great number of classes at various levels of proficiency of learners, in which various teaching methods are employed.

B i b l i o g r a p h y

1 Chomsky, Noam - Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, M.I.T.Press, 1965

2 Chomsky, Noam - Topics in the Theory of Generative Grammar, The Hague, Mouton, 1966

3 Chiţoran,D. - Analiza contrastivă şi procesul de predare şi învăţare a limbilor străine în Studii şi Cercetări Lingvistice, anul XXI, no.2, 1970, pp. 241-248

4 Carroll, John B. - The Contributions of Psychological Theory and Educational Research to the Teaching of Foreign Languages, in A.Valdman (ed.) Trends in Language Teaching: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966, pp. 93-106

5 Filipović,Rudolph - Problems of Contrastive Work: The Yugoslav Serbo-Croatian-English Contrasting Analysis Project so Far - Preprint, Zagreb Conference on English Contrastive Projects, Dec. 7-9, 1970

6 Nemser,William and T.Slama-Cazacu - A Contribution to Contrastive Linguistics (A Psycholinguistic approach: Contact Analysis) in Revue Roumaine de Linguistique, 15:2, 1970, pp. 101-128

7 Rivers, Wilga M. - Teaching Foreign-Language Skills, Univ.of Chicago Press, 1968

8 Saporta,Sol - Applied Linguistics and Generative Grammar, in A.Valdman (ed.): Trends in Language Teaching, McGraw Hill Book Company, 1966, pp. 81-92

9 Wardhaugh,Ronald - Some Reflections on the State of the Art, in English Teaching Forum, vol.VIII, no.5, 197o, pp. 11-15.

ON THE THEORETICAL BASIS OF CONTRASTIVE SYNTAX

by Laurenţiu Theban

From the moment linguistics has come to be "applied" and later on "contrastive", the necessity appeared to re-define its object of study in order to more precisely delimit it from the neighbouring sciences on the one hand, and on the other, to establish the percentage of theoretical contribution necessary to set up the frontier subdisciplines, among which also the ones already mentioned.

The amount of knowledge linguistic research has led to is permanently at the disposal of specialists belonging to other domains, being moreover susceptible of various practical applications. But, independently of its interdisciplinary valencies or its practical consequences, general or theoretical linguistics remains an autonomous discipline, attempting the study of the language exclussively for the purpose of knowing and describing the language. As a consequence, the status and the intrinsic value of linguistics are not affected by the eventual success or failures in the practical activities which make use of the results obtained in purely linguistic research. After a period of general optimism and serious investments, mechanical translation has almost been abandoned; the discredit of the whole experiment falls also on the numerous linguists engaged in working up the language in order to introduce it in the computer, although the mediocre quality of the translations thus far obtained is due to the incapacity of the computer to substitute for man in all of his functions, and despite the fact that the linguistic part of the works concerned with mechanical translations remains interesting and valid, like any result of serious research.

There are, therefore, situations which seem to expose linguistics to a "devalorization" or loss of prestige before the public at large, for whose benefit a certain way to apply it has

been attempted. Nothing seems to point to the fact that the same is going to happen now with contrastive linguistics.

Language teaching is known to be the most important and lasting application of linguistics. According to a very well known point of view, the most efficient teaching materials are those based on a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared to a parallel description of the mother tongue of the pupils (C.C.Fries).

Nobody has managed up to now to demonstrate that foreign language learning and teaching become possible or fruitful on condition of breaking or ignoring the enunciated principle.

There was, however, a mistake to generalize the part played by linguistics in carrying out this complex practical activity.

From the very beginning, contrastive analysis has been entrusted entirely to linguists, who, within the boundaries of their discipline, have given good comparative descriptions of some pairs of languages.

After about a decade of contrastive researches, predominantly linguistic, it has been rightly remarked that "contrastive analysis" is not necessarily restricted to "contrastive linguistics", the latter only representing a starting point, theoretical as well as practical, for a broader analysis, within which the psychological aspects are of first importance. Or, until recently these aspects have been completely ignored; in a convincing article,[1] Tatiana Slama-Cazacu and W.Nemser drew attention on the necessity to supply contrastive linguistic analysis with an experimental psychological analysis of the contact processes in the progress recorded from one stage to another in a person learning a foreign language.

The recognition, both revolutionary and justified, of the important place psychology will have to occupy in contrastive analysis, should not, however, be understood as an elimination of linguistics from the researches of this kind. Contrastive study does not exist "in abstracto" but implies at least two verbal individual events contained in two individual linguistic systems, linked in their turn to two languages, on which the linguists are obliged to give the most authorized and objective descriptions.

For the future it will, therefore, be necessary to establish an equilibrium and a more judicious distribution of tasks among linguists on one side, and all the other specialists who have a

---

1 In "Revue Roumaine de Linguistique", XV, 1970, 2, pp. 101-128

say in the problem of foreign languages, teaching and learning on the other.

Linguists do not have the competence to solve special problems concerning the learning process and will never assume the responsibility in a domain placed outside their strict preoccupations.

Contrastive analysis is not a hundred per cent linguistic work, and, therefore, it seems to us useful to insist on the distinction between "contrastive linguistics" and what we might call, in a narrow sense, "contrastive analysis", a distinction which is more or less explicitely acknowledged in some recent works.

As a theoretical discipline, general linguistics includes by definition among its objects the study of the languages spoken on earth. "The linguist is interested in all the languages", says J.Lyons.

The task of the linguist to contribute to the setting up and systematization of a scientific theory about the structure and functioning of human speech by observing and studying all the languages remains valid, however difficult its fulfilment might seem.

A precise and rigorous description of the structural types of a language gains considerably much by comparing each category under discussions with the situations in other languages, preferably the ones structurally very different.

A structural description of Romanian will profit relatively little by contrasting it to a similar description of Italian or English, and very much by a contrastive reference to a "rare" or "exotic" language, say Malagasy.

From a purely theoretical point of view, a contrastive analysis of Romanian and Malagasy cannot be but extremely instructive and relevant for the understanding and explaining of the structural peculiarites of the two languages. From a practical point of view such a contrastive analysis will be utterly useless as long as it will not answer any needs of a practical nature concerning the teaching of foreign languages in the schools and universities of Romania and Madagascar.

The cases of contrastive analysis of wide typological opening are, however, not very frequent, the majority of linguists contenting themselves, in theoretical works or contrastive analysis, to refer to the languages of international currency,which are more accessible. Without springing from practical considerations

a contrastive grammar of Romanian and English (chosen for reasons of convenience) can be used in different forms in textbooks and other didactic material necessary in teaching one of the two languages to the speakers of the other.

The situation is not excluded when linguists, on the request of educators, produce such contrastive grammars but, probably, neither in this case does the contrastive model conceived by the linguist find direct application in the foreign language class.

Between the contrastive theoretical linguistic approach and the actual process of learning a language there is a hiatus to the solving of which linguists remain in great part indifferent and inefficient.

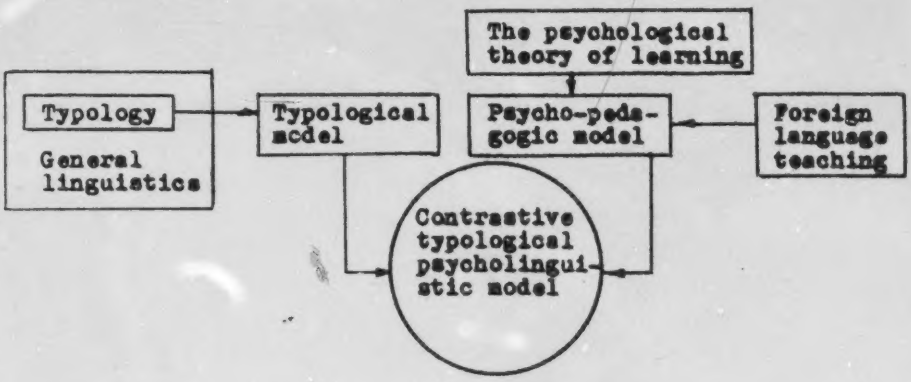
The last stage of contrastive analysis, in which the typological distance between the structures of two languages is corelated to the hierarchy of difficulties so as it comes out in the very process of teaching and learning, is placed in the intermediate zone which separates a contrastive linguistic model from a contrastive psycho-pedagogic one.

Whether the linguist aims to examine and evaluate the theoretical significance of the hierarchy of mistakes established by the teachers of foreign languages and interpreted by psychologists, whether the latter take over from the contrastive linguistic model the theoretical data and the hypothesis relevant to the explanation and solving of the interferencial cases, contrastive analysis is placed on the reliable ground of direct communication between the ones who describe a language and the ones who teach it.

Typology, the most important branch of general and theoretical linguistics subordinates, orientates and systematizes all the aspects of contrastive linguistics. In the case of a contrastive project with mainly pedagogical implications the task of the linguists cannot surpass their competence. They will elaborate a contrastive model of the two languages conceived as a hierarchy (typological and differential) of the contrasting structures in the decreasing order of the distance between them, and the psychologists and educators will elaborate a contrastive interferential analysis based on a hierarchy of the recorded mistakes in the foreign language classes.

The comparison of the two languages in an attempt to discover regularities, correspondences, symmetries, conditionings or discrepancies between the hierarchy of contrasting structures and the hierarchy of the system of errors, represents a synthesis of the

contribution with which linguists, psychologists and foreign language teachers, from different but equally relevant points of view, have to contribute to the achievement of the aims pursued by contrastive analysis.



In most of the recent works on contrastive linguistics, the remarkable advantages that result from the application of the generative-transformational model to the contrastive grammatical analysis are emphasized. Having, both of them, appeared almost simultaneously (1957 and resp. 1959), the collaboration between them is, obviously, the outcome of a favourable conjuncture. The contrastivists immediately noticed the implications of the adoption of the newest and most revolutionary linguistic theory; moreover, some generativists perceived, in the teaching of the foreign languages, a proper field for the testing of their model as well as for the reinforcing of its position through arguments of a practical nature.

The phrase-structure rules, required by the generation of kernel sentences, are of a great simplicity and clarity, a fact that makes it possible for the teachers to maintain them even in syntax surveys meant for pupils and students. It was actually revealed that whatever, at a theoretical level, is a strictly formalised set-up, may prove an attractive and instructive exercise. These re-writing rules are capable of generating very simple strings, of the classical type: "the boy ran" or "the man hit the ball", constructions that will hardly arouse any interest in an adult.

Between these elementary kernel sentences and the more developed (complex) sentences obtained by the applying of transformational rules, there range a number of less simple kernel sentences

(no longer devoid of interest for adults) disregarded by the pre-Fillmorian classical generative grammar. The deep structures commonly established by the generative grammar are awarded a certain character of universality. If, nevertheless, the deep structure posited in a generative grammar of the English language does not exactly correspond to the deep structure adopted in a generative grammar of the, say, Romanian language, one may infer that the two structures do not converge toward universality, owing to the conceiving of each as artificial, abstract procedures (necessary for a simpler handling of the facts of the respective language)rather than as semantic invariants.

Ch.Fillmore identified in the deep-structure of the sentences several syntactic-semantic functions, which he named "cases" : a - gent, beneficiary, object, instrument etc.

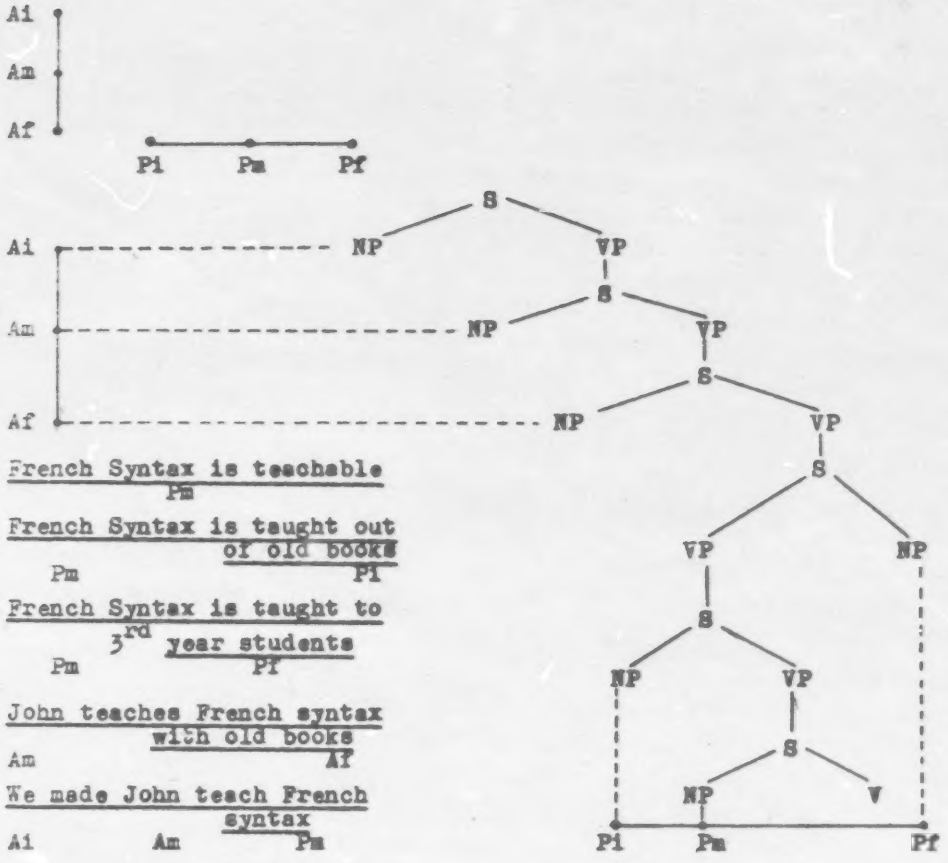
Although in comparison to the deep-structures of the Chomskyan grammar Fillmore's model is situated at a higher level of refinement, from the point of view of formalization this model appears insufficiently elucidated. For example, as Robert Stockwell remarked, nobody knows how many "cases" one should establish and associate to the verb.

The deep-structures of the strings are of a semantic nature and, therefore, have their reference term in the extralinguistic reality. In the case of the kernel sentences, the most interesting and important aspect lies not in the discovering of the inferior limit of structural complexity, but in that of its superior limit. Therefore the establishing, at a semantic level, of a maximal number of implied constituents (actants) playing different situational roles in a unitary utterance, and at a syntactic level, the establishing of a maximal number of noun phrases clustered round the verb phrase is imposed.

Relying on some data of a typological character we reached the conclusion that the structure of an event susceptible of being transposed in a kernel sentence, is made up of two categories of constituents: agents (active actants) and patients(passive actants).

Both the agents and patients are restructured on two axes,in three subcategories: initial, medial and final.

Transposing this in a derivational tree, we shall obtain a developed kernel structure, with six noun phrases



In most of the generative grammars of the English language (Jacobs & Rosenbaum, Owen Thomas) the kernel structures do not contain more than three NP-s, one of them, the deep subject, is directly dominated by the symbol of the sentence (S) while the other two are included in the VP either directly, or through the mediation of a prepositional group. It is also quite usual to obtain a kernel sentence with two prepositional groups, of the form: "Ei au năvălit asupra lor cu armele" by a generalized transformation out of two incomplete sentences: "Ei au năvălit asupra lor" and "Ei au năvălit cu armele".

The actantial diagram above is to be found in the deep structures of any language. In the contrastive syntax, therefore refe-

rence to these invariant semantic structures common to the pairs of strings in the two analysed languages is inevitable. This suggests that, at least at the syntactic-semantic level, the translation method cannot be abandoned.

The syntactic differences between two languages cannot be looked for at an actantial level, but they appear as a consequence of the specific manner in which one of the actants is chosen as grammatical subject of the string, that is closer to the surface, at the level of topicalisation.

In the Tagalog language (Philippine Islands) for instance, both the final agent and the initial patient may become grammatical subjects, while in English and Romanian this is not possible. In English, in contrast to Romanian, the final patient can sometimes function as a grammatical subject.

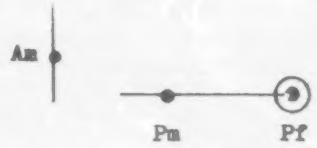
e.g.

'He was paid the bill'

'The bed was not slept in'

'He was forgiven his mistake'

'I was given a hat'



In the case when two (or more) actantial functions are coreferential, some languages will mark in some specific way one of these functions, while other languages will evidentiate the other one. For example, Romanian students would often translate "Ion a cerut o carte" by 'John asked for a book'. In such an occurrence, carte, and respectively, book are simultaneously medial and respectively final patient. The Romanian language emphasizes syntactically the medial patient function (a cerut o carte), while the English language retains as predominant the final patient (asked for a book), resorting to another verb (to request) when the other function is considered prominent.

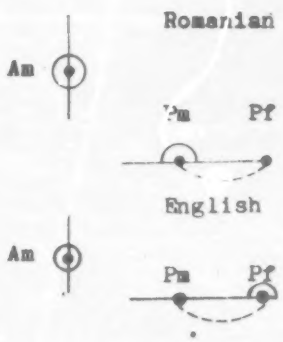
In 'Ion a intrat în casă'

and 'John entered the house'

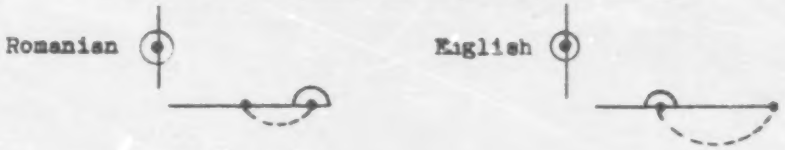
or 'they reached Val André'

and 'Ei au ajuns la Val André'

the disagreement between the two languages is realised in the reversed sense. In a simi-

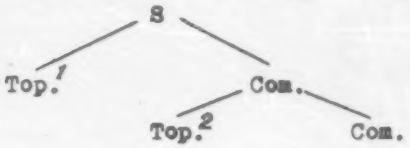


lar situation are the sentences: 'She telephoned Paul' and 'Mary should answer the letter' as opposed to: 'Ea i-a telefonat lui Paul' and 'Maria ar trebui să răspundă la scrisoare'.



New possibilities of structural differentiation between languages appear also at the level of the secondary topicalization. The grammatical subject usually corresponds to the topic, while the rest of the string, namely the verb and the possible complements, form the Comment.

In the case when the Comment contains several NP-s, one of these may be elected as a secondary topic.



Some actantial diagrams with Pa and Pf are linguistically translated into Romanian, without resorting to other grammatical means but the mere order of the words to mark the secondary topicalization.
(Peter i-a scris lui John o scrisoare. Peter i-a scris o scrisoare lui John) while in English the distinction between the secondary topicalized final patient and the untopicalized one is realised not only by means of word order, but also by loss of the preposition "to".

'I saved your sister some cake'

'He offered me a job'

'Peter wrote John a letter'

and

'Peter wrote a letter to John'

'He offered a job to me'

'I saved some cake for your sister'

To conclude, we could say - modifying a little a well-known assertion - that the languages of the world, structured each on a different grammatical pattern, serve to the shaping of a relatively common content of ideas, of a universal semantic structure. In the teaching of the foreign languages it is recommended that

the pupils should be made to realise this semantic equivalence underlying both their mother tongue(native language) and the language they are taught. They should also be made to become aware of the recognised syntactic distinctions as necessary and significant in both languages.

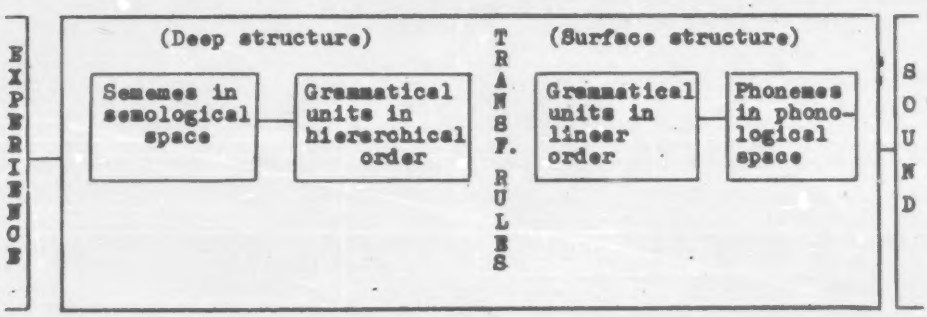
CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS
AND THE TRANSFORMATIONAL APPROACH

by Ileana Vincenz

0. We start from the premise that a contrastive analysis, situated at a superior level as compared to that represented by a given language, aims at facilitating the learning of language B by a speaker of A. The acquisition of language B is facilitated by means of specifying both common and differing elements of A and B. This analysis concerns not only the linguistic systems, but also the facts of speech, conceived as concrete realisations of the syster.

Special studies have demonstrated that one does not use, necessarily, a single approach for the contrastive analysis. It follows that our purpose is not to defend the idea that the transformational model provides the sole approach for the Romanian-English contrastive analysis. Our aim is confined to expressing some ideas on the most important transformational concepts useful for this analysis.

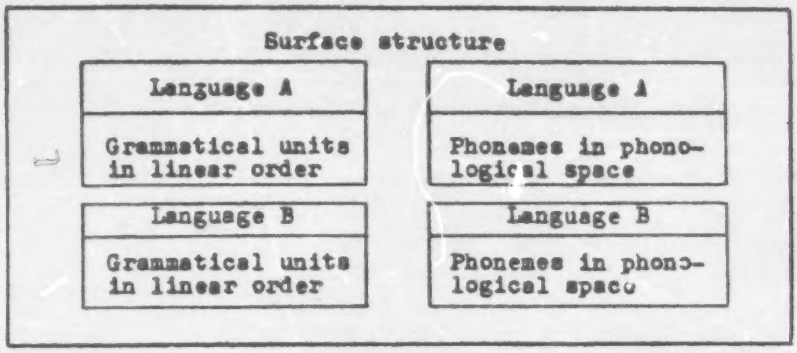
We may point out that, to date, two types of transformational models have been proposed for use in contrastive study. The first was that suggested by William Moulton[1] and has the following form:



1.

1 See The Use of Model in Contrastive Linguistics, Georgetown Round Table, 1968

The second model, proposed by Frederick Agard[2], elaborates Moulton's concept as follows, with special reference to surface structure:



2.

Thus, Agard's model presupposes a deep structure common to both languages, the surface structures being distinct.

1.0. For the present discussion, we select the following transformational concepts: deep structure, surface structure, phrase structure rules, transformation rules, lexicon, feature or mark (syntactic, semantic or phonological) and selective restrictions[3].

1.1. In a contrastive analysis, even one which does not employ a transformational approach, the concepts of deep and surface structure -- or equivalent ones -- are certainly necessary. We think that, in the case of a Romanian-English analysis for a native speaker of Romanian who learns English -- the direction of analysis being from Romanian to English, with the latter as target language -- it is useful to know that in English,at the deep structure level, the noun has an accompanying article (definite or indefinite), although in speech there are numerous cases of omission of the definite article. This assertion in traditional form is a general rule stating that the article is placed before the noun, other constructions being exceptions to this rule.

We are of the opinion that the use of the concepts of deep and surface structure in the analysis will enable the speaker to

---

2 See Prelegeri de analiză contrastivă, 1970, p.4 (mimeographed text).

3 For the definitions of these terms see N.Chomsky, Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, M.I.T., 1965.

understand more clearly the connection between constructions with an article and those without an article, placing these constructions at the same level and not conceiving of some of them as normal and of the others as exceptions.

It is possible to offer as an objection to this assertion the fact that there are nontransformational studies in which the contrastive analysis does not operate with the notions of general rule and exception, but which contain instead detailed descriptions of the contexts in which a definite article appears and of those in which this article does not appear. But, even in these cases, just as when one speaks about general rule and exception, one distinguishes clearly between the categories of the constructions mentioned earlier, although, according to the intuition of native speakers of English, they have a common conceptual structure. In our opinion the notion exception expresses, to some extent, this relationship between constructions, but to an insufficient degree.

As concerns the use of the concept of surface structure, it obviously follows as a consequence if the concept of deep structure is included in the analysis.

1.2. Among the concepts of transformational theory which can be usefully employed in contrastive linguistics is that of phrase structure rules.

In his lectures concerning the contrastive analysis of Romanian and English, Agard posited a limited number of rules common to the two languages[4], which, generally speaking, seem adequate to the linguistic facts. However, certain aspects of the rules sketched in this analysis are unclear. Ten levels are described as the frames in which different forms occur, the domain of each level being simultaneously that of constituent and function on the preceding next-higher level.[5] For instance, the level sentence, which acts as a grammatical constitutent (component) at the higher level, is composed of an attribute, an auxiliary and a nucleus; the next level, the clause, acts as nucleus at the sentence level and is composed of a subject and a predicate. It follows that one uses two terms, nucleus and clause, for the same concept, with-

4 See op.cit., pp. 4-5.

5 The levels are: utterance, sentence, clause, phrase, group, verbal core, lexeme, word, steme, morpheme. This assertion obviously does not apply to the utterance, which is the highest level.

out adequate explanation of the difference between them. Moreover, Agard does not define the frame in which these constituents have their various functions. Perhaps he has in mind the general framework of the language as a whole.

As regards phrase-structure rules, one cannot assert that they are wholly identical in Romanian and English. One notices clearly their identity at the level of the first nodes of the derivational tree. The further one descends toward lower nodes, the greater the number of individual symbols and the more numerous the differences between the two languages. For instance, the rule for Romanian having the form[6]:

$$VA \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} am \frown Part. \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} voi \\ aș \end{array} \right\} \frown Inf. \frown (fi \frown \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Part. \\ Ger. \end{array} \right\}) \frown (fi \frown \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Part. \\ Ger. \end{array} \right\}) \end{array} \right\}$$

is not adequate for English, which has other forms for auxiliary verbs (have, shall, will, be), while a more general rule like the following[7] is adequate:

$$V \longrightarrow Aux. \frown Verb$$

Also different for Romanian and English are the subcategorization rules, which, together with the phrase structure rules, belong to the base component of a transformational grammar. (By means of such rules, in Chomsky's opinion, a lexical category is rewritten in a different manner, in terms of the categorial symbols with which they appear in various sequences.) Even a superficial examination reveals differences between Romanian and English in the subcategorization of the noun according to case. For example, the following rules[8] valid for the description of Romanian nouns cannot be used for English:

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} -Nominative \\ -Accusative \end{array} \right] \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} [+Accusative] \\ [-Accusative] \end{array} \right\} / Prep. - \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} [+Genitive] \\ [-Genitive] \end{array} \right\} / Pos. - \end{array} \right.$$

6 See E.Vasiliu, S.Golopentia-Eretescu, Sintaxa transformațională a limbii române (=Sintaxa), București, 1959, p.318.

7 ibidem., p.317.

8 ibidem., p.322.

1.3. Transformational rules, which operate on the basic strings of the deep structure, thus producing the strings of the surface structure, must be used in a contrastive analysis in moderation. Their inclusion in an analysis of this kind is justified only if it facilitates the acquisition of the target language. That is, if one presents, in the framework of the Romanian-English analysis, the passivization rule, which is nearly identical in the two languages, a speaker of Romanian is considerably aided in acquiring English verbal grammar. We refer to a "nearly identical" passivization rule for these languages because, given the rule[9] for Romanian:

GN_1 - X - Verb - pe - GN_2 - de(către) - fi + Part ⟶

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	2	7	∅	3	6	1

the symbols 4, 6 and 7 must be modified before the rule can be included in a transformational grammar of English. The symbol 4 must be deleted, 6 rewritten as by and not de(către), and 7 rewritten as be + Part., instead of fi + Part.

But transformational descriptions of these two languages also contain transformational rules which are unique to one of them, e.g. for Romanian, the rule by which the preposition pe is deleted, and for English, the interrogative rule employing the do forms. We think that their inclusion in a contrastive analysis would reveal characteristics peculiar to each language and, therefore, would be useful.

However, for linguists undertaking a contrastive analysis, the essential problem, so far unsolved, is the following: can transformational rules, which presuppose an advanced degree of linguistic sophistication, be understood by a typical speaker, X, who has had no special linguistic training ? In finding an answer to this question, it should be possible to utilize as an indication the results of experimentations, which would have the aim of determining to what degree a linguistic fact is more readily understood and internalized when it is presented from a transformational, rather than a traditional, point of view.

1.4. The lexicon, defined within the framework of the transformational method as an unordered list of lexical formatives[10] in

9 See Sintaxa, p. 326.

10 See N.Chomsky, op.cit., p.84.

which every formative is characterized by syntactic and semantic features (markers), does not seem readily applicable to contrastive analysis, which aims at facilitating the learning of a foreign language. However, the concept of marker, defined as a property which differentiates a unit from related units in the language, does have potential utility for contrastive linguistics. As is known, in phonology this concept had been already formulated clearly[11] before the development of transformational phonology, and in semantics it had counterparts in the framework of other semantic theories preceding the transformational semantic theory of J.J.Katz and J.A.Fodor. An example is the concept, *sema*, suggested by B.Pottier[12].

Obviously, the originality of the transformational approach consists in extending the use of the concept of marker or feature to syntax as well, especially in their explicit arrangement in the formalized shape of trees and matrices.

The concept of marker (feature) seems useful for contrastive analysis, in part because it is not so specialised as to interest only a limited number of linguists. However, there are limits as to the number of markers which can be usefully employed. We believe that the most general markers, like (±Animate), (±Human), etc. should be included in a contrastive analysis because they can sharply distinguish lexemes of the base language from those of the target language. At the same time, for a contrastive analysis of Romanian and English, we doubt that features like (±Iterative) for verbs can be of use.

1.5. The comparison of two languages, A and B, since it reveals both familiar and unfamiliar elements which a speaker of A will encounter in learning language B, presupposes also the description of combinatory options relating units in each language. We refer to the semantic combinations permissible between units, for instance between a noun, marked by means of certain semantic features, and an adjective, characterized by means of other semantic markers. These are the selective restrictions of transformational semantics, presumably a very important aspect in the learning of a foreign language. We think that this concept, too,

---

11 See R.Jakobson, G.Fant, M.Halle, *Preliminaries to Speech Analysis*, Cambridge, Mass., 1961.

12 See *Recherches sur l'analyse sémantique en linguistique et en traduction mécanique*, Publications Linguistiques de la Faculté des Lettres et Sciences Humaines de l'Université de Nancy, 1963, p.19.

can be usefully employed in a contrastive analysis, if used with moderation, like that of marker (feature). In other words, if there are a limited number of semantic features, the number of selective restrictions expressed by these markers will be limited, too.

The above remarks, of course, do not solve the problem of specifying all of the features included in a transformational model which would be relevant for a contrastive study.

2.0. From the preceding observations it seems to follow that the transformational approach, one of the most widely used linguistic approaches, can supply contrastive analysis in general, and the Romanian-English analysis in particular, with concepts which would lead to a clear differential description of the target and base languages and to the easier acquisition of the former[13]. Obviously, a transformational description is not the only possible one; however, it does offer certain advantages which linguists must take into account in undertaking a contrastive analysis.

13 For a contrastive grammar model which relies on the transformational model, see W.O.Dingwall, Transformational Generative Grammar and Contrastive Analysis, LL, vol.XIV, m.h.

B. PRELIMINARY RESULTS OF WORK IN PROGRESS

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH AND ROMANIAN

A few problems regarding the consonant systems of the two languages and connected with the learning of English by Romanian speaking people and of Romanian by English speaking people

by Virgiliu Ştefănescu-Drăgăneşti

From the point of view of applied linguistics the problems which arise in comparing the two languages, and in teaching Romanians to speak English and English-speaking people to speak Romanian can be classified under four different headings :

1. Phonemic problems
2. Phonetic problems
3. Allophonic problems
4. Distributional problems

1. Phonemic problems

In order to examine the phonemic problems we shall first start from an overall comparison between the consonant phonemes in the two languages, and begin by placing diagrams of the English and Romanian consonant systems side by side:

English					Romanian				
Stops	pb	td		kg	pb	td		kg	
Affricates		[ ]		ǰǧ		[ts]		ǰǧ	
Fricatives	fv	[θð]	[r]	h	fv	[ ]	[ ]	h	

As can easily be seen from the above diagrams English has 22 consonants and 3 semi-vowels while Romanian has 2o consonants and 4 semi-vowels or semi-consonants.

Both languages have the same number of plosives (6:/pb,td,kg/) sibilants (4:/sz,šž/) and laterals (1:/l/).

Romanian has three affricates: /čğ/ and /ts/ while English has only two: /čğ/ ; it lacks the alveolar /ts/.

English has six fricatives: /fv,θð , r,h/ while Romanian has only three; it lacks the interdentals /θð/ and the past-alveolar /r/.

English has three nasals: /m,n,ŋ /, while Romanian has only two: /m,n/; it lacks the velar nasal /ŋ /.

The Romanian rolled apical consonant /ř/ has no correspondent consonant in English.

English has three semi-vowels: /w,j,r/ while Romanian has four: /w,j ɥ, ɰ/ it lacks the past-alveolar /r/ and it has in exchange /ɥ/ and /ɰ/.

Note. Several authors, both English and American, speak of a fricative consonant /r/ and a semi-vowel /r/ in English; for this reason we have included both phonemes in the above diagram.

Dotted squares show areas where an English phoneme has no correspondent in Romanian, viz.: the interdental fricatives /θð/,the past-alveolar fricative /r/, the velar nasal /ŋ / and the semi-vowel /r/, the solid squares show, on the other hand, the areas where a Romanian phoneme has no correspondent in English, viz. the alveolar affricate ts, the apical rolled /ř/, and the semi-vowels /ɥ/ and /ɰ/.

We shall not embark upon a detailed comparison of all these phonemes here, but only mention the major differences between the phonemes of the two languages which represent the field of the greatest difficulties for English-speaking people learning Romanian and Romanian-speaking people learning English.

For instance, Romanians may use a wrong English phoneme when they attempt to pronounce words containing one of the consonants/θ/

or /ð/ as in Romanian there is nothing corresponding to them. Therefore, on coming across words like thick, thank or thought they often pronounce them as sick, sank or sought, words which also exist in English but with altogether different meanings. On the other hand, Romanians, quite frequently, pronounce words which do not really exist in English as for instance / ə:s/ meaning earth, / 'ɔ:sə / meaning author, /'mʌzə / mother, /'fa:zə / father, etc.

At the same time English and American students will encounter analogous difficulties when learning Romanian. However, their problems are less numerous and not of the same degree as those of the Romanians learning to speak English.

The phonemes which appear to be most different from their own to Englishmen and Americans learning Romanian are the oral dental plosives /t/ and /d/ and the rolled apical constrictive /r̆/. Their replacement by the corresponding English phonemes will lead mainly to somehow pronunciations which seem odd but which are not unintelligible. Such pronunciations will carry with them a hint of the exotic not altogether unpleasant to the ear.

For instance:

Du-te d-ta la tutungerie şi adă-mi nişte tutun de pipă (You, please, go to the tobacconist's and bring me some tobacco for my pipe) would sound amusingly queer when the English alveolar consonants are used and the /t/ and /p/ are pronounced accompanied by aspiration.

Some difficulty arises in teaching English and American students to pronounce the Romanian apical /r̆/ which is articulated by bringing the tip of the apex into contact with the alveolar ridge several times in rapid succession so as to produce a trill, while at the same time the vocal cords vibrate. The phoneme which most closely resembles apical /r̆/ is the voiced apico-alveolar plosive /d/ from which, however, it differs in the following features: first the apico-alveolar contact for English /d/ includes a wider area of the apex and of the alveolar ridge than the contact for Romanian /r̆/ and second, the holding of /d/ lasts longer than that of /r̆/. English and American students are not unused to trilled apical /r̆/ (cf. Scottish English, etc.) although it is not a speech sound in English. Therefore they can easily learn to pronounce the Romanian consonant /r̆/. However, if English and American students of Romanian continue substituting their constricted /r/ (or the semi-vowel /r/) for the apical /r̆/ they will be easily un-

Cda. 447/971 Fasc. 8

derstood by Romanians as such mistakes are not phonemic mistakes. They are only phonetic mistakes which in most cases sound very foreign and quite ammusing as, for instance, in a sentence like.

Reveniţi, vă rog, într-o oră (Please, come back after an hour).

2. Phonetic problems

Quite often Romanians transfer articulatory habits from Romanian into English thus using wrong sounds in English. For instance, as in Romanian there is no velarized or dark /ɫ/ Romanians always replace it in English words by common Romanian /l/, which corresponds to clear /l/ in English.

This is not a phonemic mistake as the two variants of /l/ in English are not distinctive phonemes. However the substituting of clear /l/ for the velarized (dark) /ɫ/ in English words appears as a pronunciation mistake and makes understanding difficult. Therefore, pronunciaticns with a clear /l/ in the case of words like tell, old, little appear as extremely unnatural to English-speaking people.

On the other hand, Romanian lateral /l/ is always clear. Clear /l/ is also used by English-speaking people before vowels, therefore it is easy to pronounce it in Romanian words.

However, English and American students use a dark /ɫ/ in Romanian words in all positions in which they use a dark (l) in English, i.e. in final positions or before consonants, e.g. such Romanian words as alt (other) el (he) cal (horse) (altul, vă rog)(another one, please)etc. This constitutes a phonetic mistake which may sometimes lead to incomprehensibility but most often only sound very foreign and may contribute to the ruin of an otherwise good Romanian pronunciation.

3. Allophonic problems. By transferring into English the articulatory skills of their own language Romanians, quite often, use wrong allophones or even wrong phonemes in the pronunciation of English sounds.

For instance, words ending in the velar nasal phoneme /ŋ/ are very frequent in English. As in Romanian /ŋ/ is only an allophone of dental /n/ and occurs only medially and before the velar plosives /k/ and /g/ Romanians substitute a Romanian /n/ for the phoneme /ŋ/ in all positions in English words in which they do not use the allophone /ŋ/ in their own languages.

They can never pronounce the allophone /ŋ/ in final position. Following this, thing is pronounced as thin /θin/, wing as win /win / tongue as ton /tʌn / which are quite different words.

Another allophonic problem concerns the voiceless oral plosives /p,t,k/ and the affricate /č/.

English-speaking people use strongly aspirated allophones of the above consonants when they occur in initial and medial positions at the beginning of a stressed syllable (Americans use strongly aspirated allophones initially at the beginning of unstressed syllable) e.g.

	Initially at beginning of a stressed syllable	Medially at beginning of a stressed syllable
/p/	part	appeal
	pen	opinion
	peach	suppose
/t/	tell	attend
	take	attach
	time	hotel
/k/	come	account
	care	acquaint
	cool	accustom
/č/	child	enchant
	chill	achieve
	chew	Massachussetts

If the aspirated allophones are not used in the above situations their pronunciation does not sound correct to English speaking people.

On the other hand the use of unaspirated allophones in the above positions may lead to confusion, as the English of American listener may understand bit instead of pit or din instead of tin since the interprets lack of aspiration as a mark of the lenis consonant (/b/ or /d/).

The aspirated allophones of /p,t,k/ also occur in stressed syllables when followed by /l,r,j,w/ and, in this case again if the English-speaking listener does not hear the aspirated allophone he may confuse plunder with blunder, true with drew, etc.

The allophonic problems of English-speaking people learning Romanian are also serious.

Some of the allophones of English consonant phonemes are identical with some of the allophones of the Romanian consonant phonemes but others are very much different and when they are substituted for the Romanian phonemes they make the language of the speakers sound strange and foreign if not even slightly ridiculous. The use of the wrong allophones does not make understanding difficult but if they are not introduced into Romanian words the Romanian of the Englishmen and Americans will sound much better. Sometimes, the differences between the allophones are very small and easy to correct.

Thus English-speaking people must avoid the transferring into Romanian of the aspirated allophones of /p,t,k,c/ in initial position in stressed syllables but they have to use the above allophones (with the exception of /č/ weakly aspirated - at the end of Romanian words, as for instance in

cap (head), sat (village), duc (I carry)

Quite often American students carry over English allophonic habits into Romanian thus using wrong phones or even wrong phonemes.

For instance non initially before an unstressed vowel Americans often use the flap allophone /ṭ/ as in water /'wɔṭə/. If this flapped /ṭ/ is used in Romanian words like sută /s u t ă/, mută /m u ṭ ă/ (dumb, mute), gută /g u t ă/ (gout), pată /p a t ă/ (patch), it will sound either incomprehensible or it may be taken for a kind of apical /ř/ and Romanians may think they hear the words sură /'s u r ă/ (grey), mură /'m u r ă/, (blackberry), gură /g u r ă/ (mouth), pară /p a r ă/ (pear).

On the other hand, as many Americans make no distinction between /t/ and /d/ in medial position and use the flap allophone /ṭ/ in both situations, further confusion arises from the fact, too. For example words like Romanian lădă (bin) and lată (wide), ciudă (spite) and ciută (hind), rudă (relative) and rută (route) are subject to confusion if they are pronounced with /ṭ/.

Another allophonic problem is that raised by the phoneme /s/.

For example if we compare the allophones of English /s/ and Romanian /s/ we see that the range of the allophones of English /s/ is wider than in Romanian. Thus Romanian /s/ is always articulated with rounded and protruded lips while English /s/ may be articulated with or without rounded lips. On the other hand Romanian /s/ is, as a rule, articulated with a deep groove in the tongue while English /s/ is articulated with a shallow groove and

spread lips. This means that English and American students learning Romanian must no longer use such a wide range of allophones of the phoneme /s/ as in their own language.

Somewhat similar problems are those raised by the phoneme /z/ where again English has a wider range of allophones than Romanian.

Allophonic problems also occur in the case of the phonemes /t,d,n/ from the fact that they are alveolar in English and dental in Romanian. The transfer of the English allophones into Romanian will not affect understanding but it will make the pronunciation of Romanian sound strange.

The consonants /b,g, ,f,v,s,z,h,m,n/ and the semi-vowels /w,j/ many of the allophones of which are the same in both languages, offer no special difficulties either to Romanians learning English or to Englishmen and Americans learning Romanian. The existence of the semi-vowels /ə̯/ and /o̯/ in Romanian has no material effect upon the ability of English speakers to pronounce Romanian.

4. Distributional Problems

Phonemic errors may also occur when Romanian cluster habits are carried over into English, and vice versa.

In this respect English consonant clusters offer greater difficulties to Romanians than Romanian clusters to British and Americans. Most of the two-consonant clusters exist in both languages and Romanian has only a few three-consonant clusters. Larger groups do not occur in Romanian, and on the whole the fewer consonant clusters in Romanian make it easier for English speakers to learn it than it is for Romanian speakers to learn English.

The English clusters which appear to Romanians as difficult and unfamiliar occur chiefly in final position although some of them also occur in initial or medial positions.

On the other hand the chief difficulties for Romanians are not only such clusters as consist of four or sometimes even five consonants, but also some of the simpler clusters which may happen to include one of the four consonants which are very difficult for Romanians, viz. /θ, , , r/. In teaching English to Romanians the teacher must therefore pay special attention to such clusters, which raise many more difficult problems than a mere different distribution of consonants in clusters.

The presence of a difficult consonant in an unfamiliar cluster will not only lead to replacing that consonant with another consonant but also to its being altogether dropped.

For instance a word like sixths /siksθs/ will be pronounced /siks/ by Romanians, paths /pɑːðz/ as /pɑːz/ and even a word like hands will be pronounced /hænz/ instead of /hændz/.

In a word like "songs", under the influence of its spelling Romanians will pronounce the cluster as /ŋs/ instead of /ŋz/. Neither of these clusters occurs in Romanian so that, in this case, what carries over is the spelling of the word, perhaps also strengthened by the mishearing of a partly devoiced /z/.

Here are a number of consonant clusters which offer greater difficulties to Romanians:

Clusters of two consonants

(tr)	- tree	(lz)	- tells
(θr)	- three	(ŋd)	- hanged
(dr)	- address	(kt)	- looked
(ðr)	- father-in-law	(ŋz)	- sings
(ʃr)	- shrimp	(tʃt)	- watched
(bl)	- able	(tθ)	- eighth
(dl)	- middle	(θs)	- moths
(pl)	- apple	(θt)	- bathed
(tl)	- little	(ðd)	- bathed
(dθ)	- hundredth	(ðm)	- rhythm
		(ðz)	- paths

Clusters of three consonants

(skr)	- scream	(nθs)	- months
(spr)	- spring	(ŋkt)	- instinct
(str)	- street	(ŋks)	- banks
(str)	- astraddle	(pnl)	- shrapnel
(dst)	- amidst	(sns)	- nuisance
(ksθ)	- sixth	(sts)	- costs
(lkt)	- bulked	(fts)	- lifts
(ldʒd)	- bulged	(tld)	- bottled
(lst)	- waltzed	(tlz)	- bottles
(mps)	- mumps	(tst)	- blitzed
(ndʒd)	- lounged	(tθs)	- eighths
(nds)	- lends	(znz)	- cousins

Clusters of four consonants

(dmrl)	- admiral
(ksθs)	- sixths
(lkts)	- mulcts

(ldrn) - children
(mznd) - crimsoned
(ndld) - bundled
(ŋkts) - instincts
(stld) - pestled
(strl) - astral
(znt0) - thousandth

Clusters of five consonants

(znt0s) - thousandths

British and Americans have less difficulties with Romanian consonant clusters than Romanians have with English ones. First of all this is due to the fact that consonant clusters are in most cases simpler in Romanian than in English so that the pronunciation of Romanian consonants by English-speaking people is, in general quite satisfactory.

However, certain difficulties still occur, as for instance in the case of clusters containing the consonants /l/ and /r/. Americans who use a flap /t̆/ will also have difficulties with clusters containing the Romanian consonant /r/ which they will pronounce as /r̆/.

The British will have special difficulties with an /r/ + C cluster as an /r/ sound is never sounded in such positions in British English, e.g. arc /ark/ bow; gard /gard/ fence; sport /sport/ sport, etc.

Difficulties concerning an /l/ + C cluster are the same for Britishers as for Americans, e.g. alb white; calc I step; cald warm.

The cluster C + pseudo-vowel /i/ (cartofi potatoes; bani money, coli sheets of paper; nervi nerves, offers, perhaps one of the greatest difficulties to English-speaking people learning Romanian. They tend to pronounce the cluster as a separate syllable in which the sound /i/ becomes the nucleus of the syllable, which alters the pronunciation of the respective word.

On the whole Romanian consonant clusters which have no English correspondent are few and usually limited to words which are not commonly used, e.g. areană barbel.

Some difficulties however, arise from the distribution of certain clusters in Romanian. For instance, although the clusters /kt/ and /kn/ appear in English, e.g. fact, bacon /beikn/ English-

speaking students of Romanian will not find it easy to pronounce such words as ctitorie foundation (of a monastery) or cneaz prince (ancient title).

Similarly, British and Americans are familiar with the cluster /ts/ which is very much like the Romanian consonant /ţ/. However, though the English cluster could be of very great help when English-speaking people are learning the pronunciation of such Romanian words as ţară country; ţine, he holds; ţel aim, the fact that the English cluster /ts/ occurs only in final position appears to be of very little help to British and Americans confronted with words beginning with /ţ/ in Romanian.

In such cases, under the influence of the orthography of the Romanian words the above words will be pronounced as /tarə/ tine/ and /tel/ or, by analogy with the manner of pronouncing other foreign words-the words, may be pronounced: /zarə/, /zine/ and /zel/.

Something similar can be said about the cluster /zd/ which occurs in final position in English, e.g. amazed, raised. In Romanian this cluster occurs quite frequently in initial position, e.g. a zdrobi to crush; a zdruncina to shake; zdravăn sturdy, etc., which explains why Britishers and Americans have some difficulty in pronouncing such Romanian words correctly.

x x x

As already stated, the present paper is only an introduction to the contrastive analysis of the consonant systems of English and Romanian and is only intended to serve as a basis for a much more comprehensive study of the consonant systems of the two languages.

SOME ASPECTS OF THE CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND ROMANIAN MORPHOPHONEMICS

by Anca Belchiță

In the following we shall refer to the establishment of the corpus for morphophonemic rules and to the method that we shall use in the contrastive analysis of English and Romanian morphophonemics. The undermentioned observations are the outcome of our attempt to formulate morphophonemic rules for the two languages.

1. We consider that the dictionary Michael West is inadequate as a basis for a contrastive morphophonemics of English and Romanian. It can not be used even as a basis to begin such a study. In the following we should like to state precisely this idea not simply as an impression, but presenting some data obtained by wholly consulting the dictionary. The selection of the data from this dictionary shows us the following situation: from the 2000 words of this dictionary only 225 wordshave an interest for English morphophonemic rules, that is their basic form changes in the course of inflexion or derivation. As it can be seen, the number is extremely eloquent for the impossibility to formulate any conclusion on the basis of a so limited corpus. Moreover, at the same time, when we consulted Alphonse Juilland, P.M.H.Edwards, Ileana Juilland, Frequency Dictionary of Romanian Words, Mouton, 1965,we saw that some of the 225 words are neither among the first 2000 frequent words of the Romanian language - the number corresponding to the corpus of words established as a basis for English - nor among the 5000 words considered as frequent for Romanian.We mention some unregistered words: actor "actor", actriță "actress", a admite "to admit", avertisment "advertisment", agricultură"agriculture", ambiție "ambition", ceremonie "ceremony", ceremonial "ceremonial", a clasifica "to classify", prudență, precauție "cautionn". We emphasize that when we compared the inventories of words we took into account not only the first Romanian word equivalent

to the English word, given by bilingual dictionaries, but the whole list of equivalent terms.

Having a so limited corpus for English language it is evident that any generalisation on the regularity or irregularity of the phonological changes of the basic forms becomes unjustified.

On the other hand, for Romanian we established the changes of the basic forms of the lexical morphemes using the Dictionary of Romanian Modern Language, Bucharest, 1955, that comprises about 5o,ooo words. The numerical discrepancy between the two corpora is immense. The advantage of using an extended corpus for Romanian - and in general for every language - is represented by the certainty to establish an exhaustive inventary of vocalic and consonantic alternations produced in the course of inflexion and derivation. Also on the basis of this corpus we are able to delimit the regular vs. irregular phenomena. For irregular phenomena it must be established an exact difference between the irregular changes that appear in frequent words - and here a frequency dictionary of words is useful - on the one hand and the irregular changes that appear in words with a low frequency on the other hand. This fact is necessary because in the Dictionary of Romanian Modern Language a great number of words have the mention : archaic, regional, unusual. Then the words bearing these mentions: archaic, regional, unusual must be eliminated from the corpus used for standard-Romanian morphophonemics, even if their basic form varies during the inflection. To include these words in the Romanian corpus means to rise to the rank of regularity an isolated phenomenon and with a low frequency. By reducing the inventory of words in this way we can determine the inventory of lexical morphemes of the Romanian contemporary standard language. In this inventory a new selection can be performed by stating precisely the frequency of each unit. As much as we should reduce the corpus for Romanian, so that it be similar to the corpus established for English, it must include all the basic forms that vary during the inflection or derivation. Taking this condition into account we must enlarge the corpus used for English, so that it include all the frequent morphophonemic changes in English. Hence in addition to the 2ooo words of Michael West's Dictionary, all other lexical units that illustrate the other morphophonemic changes in English must be obligatorily added.

2. The second question we shall concern here is the method applied in the study of a contrastive morphophonemics of English and Romanian.

As we considered to be necessary to establish the morphophonemic processes of the two languages on the basis of a relatively unitary corpus, so we consider necessary to use a phonological basis as unitary as possible. That is why a phonological basis (or an underlying phonological system) fulfils this condition. So when the data before established must be systematized, we propose to utilize some principles offered by the generative transformational method. We consider to be very useful prof. Agard's idea to take as a starting point a basic (underlying) phonological system for each language.

E.g. for English vowels :

i	u
e	o
æ	ɔ
± tense	

For Romanian vowels :

i	ɨ	u
e	ə	o
	a	

That means to register in the dictionary all lexical and grammatical morphemes at their basic form. This form is expressed only by phonological symbols comprised in the basic phonological system. The other forms attested in the two languages will be obtained by morphophonemic rules. If we have for English and Romanian two basic (underlying) phonological systems as similar as possible, we shall have the possibility to state morphophonemic rules in a similar way. So it is oppen the possibility to compare the morphophonemic systems of the two languages, having a common basis.

We do not recommand in this stage to use a distinctive features system, which probably would confer a very complicated aspect on rules. An integral acoustic phonetic analysis of the two languages could be used afterwards to transform phonological symbols into acoustic distinctive features. As a matter of fact dis-

tinctive features were not used firstly and exclusively in the generative theory. What generative transformational theory offers us and we consider useful is a unitary phonological basis. Having this basis, by common or specific morphophonemic rules, we can obtain in the same way the concrete flexional and derived forms in each language. Hence some principles of this method in a stage following the selection of the data make possible a more systematic and unitary representation of the contrastive morphophonemics of the two languages.

THE FRONT VOWELS OF ROMANIAN AND ENGLISH
(a contrastive study)

by Laurenţia Dascălu

The aim of the present work is to describe the English front vowels as they are pronounced by the Romanians who study English.

This description has been carried on, first of all, in the field of acoustic phonetics and it will be completed with references to the English and the Romanian vowel system, in other words, the present work is a comparative research of experimental (instrumental) phonetics.

The first stage of the research consisted in selecting a list of English words containing front vowels and in choosing certain "subjects", speakers of Romanian, who were asked to read these words into the microphone in order to be tape recorded.

The following words have been selected from A.S.Hornby's, Oxford Progressive English for Adult Learners, Book One, London (First Published, 1954; Reprinted, 1957), pag. VI, VII :

For the vowel / e /

pen /p e n/
ten /t e n/
letter /l e t ə/
pleasure /p l e ʒ ə/
desk /d e s k/
head / h e d /

For the vowel /æ/

bag / b æ g /
hat / h æ t /

For the vowel / ɪ /

his / h ɪ z /
fish / f ɪ ʃ /

this /ð ɪ s/
sit /s ɪ t/
him /h ɪ m/

For the vowel / i: /

she /ʃ i: /
teacher /t i: tʃə/
three /θ r i: /
these /ð i: z/

The following list of Romanian words containing front vowels has been drawn up and to these we have added a few words containing the vowel / a /, as a point of reference to help establish the "compact/diffuse" acoustic features :

For the vowel / i /

nit*
trist
zid
disc
bice
iz
chit / k i t /

For the vowel / e /

ten
bec
net
ger
zei

For the vowel / a /

plajă
rac
taci / t a tʃ /
am
glas
maro
brav

* In the case of Romanian words, we shall give the phonetic transcription only when it is absolutely necessary.

For the contrastive phonetical study of the English and the Romanian languages, were selected for this first stage: several subjects:12 women between the age of 17 and 42 and 4 men,between the age of 24 and 39, having various levels of education (secondary school, technical school, higher education, both technical and humanistic. When the recording was made the subjects belonged to several levels of knowledge of English. From among these subjects we selected only three, namely those with the lowest voices,[1] men, of course:

CD: 39 (years old), graduate of the Faculty of Russian philology, 3 months of English

EP: 33, engineer, 3 months of English

HN: 24, engineer, 2 years of English, originary from the Apuseni Mountains

Since there are many studies dealing with "Standard" English[2], which give a detailed description of all the English vowels, we didn't consider it necessary to make measurements of the Standard English material furnished by the records accompanying A.S.Hornby's book.

Although there are also studies which deal with the acoustic indices of the Romanian vowels[3] and which contain data that we shall refer to further on, we considered it necessary, however, to record the above list of Romanian words in order to have com-

---

1 It is well known that the male voices, with a grave tone offer an optimum spectrographic image for the study of the vowel formants, cf. Bjorn Lindblom, Accuracy and Limitations of Sonagrah Measurements, in Proceedings of the Fourth International Congress of Phonetic Sciences, Helsinki, 1961, The Hague, 1962, p.192: "The higher the fundamental frequency, the less information on the envelope shape"; Gunar Fant, Analysis and Synthesis of Speech Processes, in Manual of Phonetics, edited by B.Malmberg, Amsterdam, 1968, p.181: "Present spectrographic techniques apparently favour male voices and are not equally well-suited for analysis of female voices".

2 We are citing here only two of these studies: G.Peterson and H. Barney, Control Methods Used in a Study of the Vowels, in J.A.S.A., vol.24, 1952, 2, pp.175-184, reprinted in the vol. Readings in Acoustic Phonetics, edited by Ilse Lehiste, the M.I.T. Press, Cambridge, Mass. and London, 1967, pp.118-127 ; Pierre Delattre, Comparing the Phonetic Features of English, German, Spanish and French, Heidelberg, 1965, pp. 45-70.

3 Andrei Avram, Vocalele românești (ă) și (i) din punct de vedere acustic, in SCL XIV, 1963, pp.165-177; by the same author, Sur la structure acoustique des voyelles neutres du roumain, in "Revue Romane", Numero Special 4, 1970, pp.87-95; Valeriu Suteu, Observații asupra structurii acustice a vocalelor românești i,e, ă, o și u in SCL XIV, 1963, pp.179-198; by the same author, Cercetări asupra vocalelor sintetice românești i, e, ă, o și u, under print.

parable elements concerning the pronunciation of Romanian sounds of our subjects. In the case of the subject HN, originary from the Apuseni Mountains, we did not record Romanian words.

The Instrumental Analysis. Results

To this end, we used the results of the spectrographic analy is of the tape-recorded material.

Sonagrams with wide-band filter for the English and Romanian words were obtained with the aid of a Sona-Graph Kay Electric Co. Pine Brook, N.Y. spectrograph[4] and sections with narrow-band filter on the vowels for study were made in their steady state.

It is well known that in order to specify the vowels it is sufficient to know the values of the two formants.[5] The value of the formant F_1 is connected with the feature "compact/diffuse" : the higher the value of the formant F_1, the more compact the character of the vowel, and the lower F_1, the more diffuse the vowel. The position of the formant F_2 is determined by the character "grave/acute" of the vowel: the acuter the vowel, the higher the F_2, and vice-versa, the graver the vowel, the lower the F_2.

Having in mind the importance of the first two formants in determining the acoustic features of the vowels, we measured the frequencies for F_1 and F_2, both for all the fronts vowels in the English and Romanian words and for /a/ in the Romanian words. We then calculated the average values of the formants F_1 and F_2 for the 4 English vowels and for the 3 Romanian vowels uttered by the three speakers.

These average values grouped on subjects are indicated in table nr.1, also marking, in order to facilitate comparison, the standard values of the English vowels (on the left hand side of the table), as well as the standard values of the Romanian vowels[6]

---

4 both the tape recordings and the sonagrams were achieved in the laboratory of experimental phonetics within the Centre of Phonetical and Dialectal Research of the Romanian Academy.

5 P.Delattre, op.cit. p.47; by the same author, Studies in French and Comparative Phonetics, 1966, Mouton and Co, London, the Hague, Paris, p.253.

6 We considered as standard values for English the data (determined through spectrographic analysis and synthesis) from P.Delattre's, Comparing the Features of English, German, Spanish and French, Heidelberg, 1965, p.49 (the study refers to American English), and for Romanian, the optimum figures (also established through analysis and synthesis) found by A.Avram and V.Suteu in the studies mentioned before.

on the right-hand side of the table). The first figure corresponds to F_2, the second one to F_1 and it represents cycles per second.

Table nr.1

Vowel	Standard English	CD English	EP English	HN English	CD Roma-nian	EP Roma-nian	Standard Romanian	Vowel
/i:/	22 o 3oo	2592 324	2178 327	2142 3o6	2422 319	2184 324	2400-2800 3oo	/i/
/I/	195o 35o	2577 36o	2189 36o	1998 38o	19o8 442	1776 492	18oo 5oo	/e/
/e/	21oo 4oo	2o76 564	1728 534	1674 54o				
/æ/	17oo 75o	1968 72o	1752 6oo	1632 768	1491 7oo	14oo 72o	12oo 75o	/a/

The values F_1 and F_2 of the English vowels uttered by the three Romanian speakers can be easily compared in Table 1 with the standard English vowels. It can be thus noticed the extent to which every subject approached the correct pronunciation of the target language, as well as the measure in which he was influenced by the pronunciation of his native language. We notice that the English vowels of the speakers EP and HN have values close enough to the English standard. The English vowel /e/ constitutes the only exception, since in the pronunciation of the two speakers, its average values are closer to those of the Romanian vowel /e/, than to the standard English /e/, this meaning that the English vowel was erroneously brought closer to the Romanian vowel and influenced by it.

A closer study of the table can also lead to some remarks concerning the personal pronunciation peculiarities of the subjects, both in Romanian and in English.

Thus, all the vowels uttered by the subject CD are remarkable for their more acute character (F_2 is high) both in comparison with the standard vowels (English and Romanian) and with the vowels of the other two subjects.

To the same end of confronting the English vowels pronounced by the Romanian speakers with the Standard English vowels, we arranged the values of F_1 and F_2 on a musical scale, first there came the standard English vowels, under them, the vowels of every subject taken individually, and, in the end, the standard Romanian values.

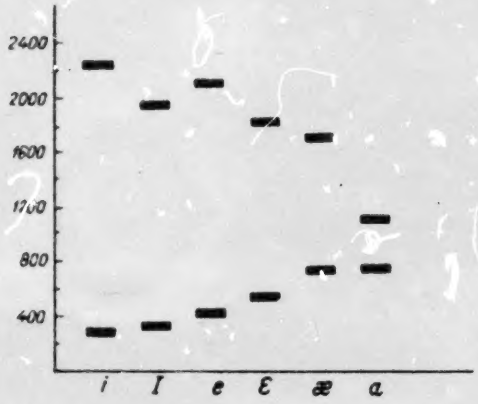


Chart no.1
Standard English

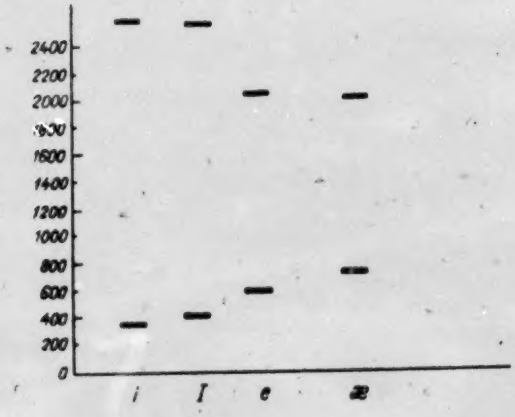


Chart no.2
English, Speaker CD

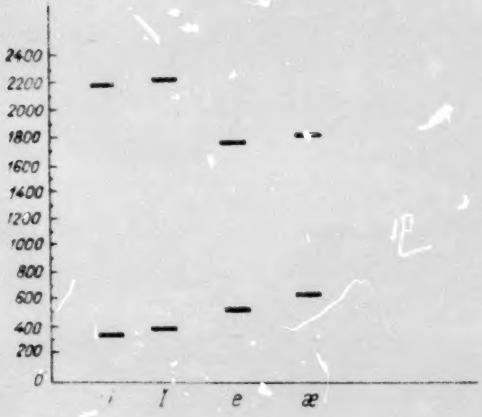


Chart no.3
English, speeker EP

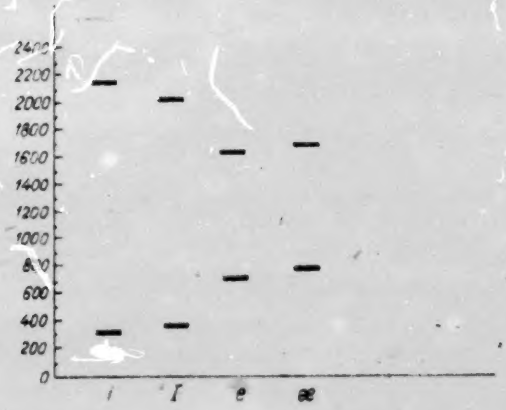


Chart no.4
English, speeker HN

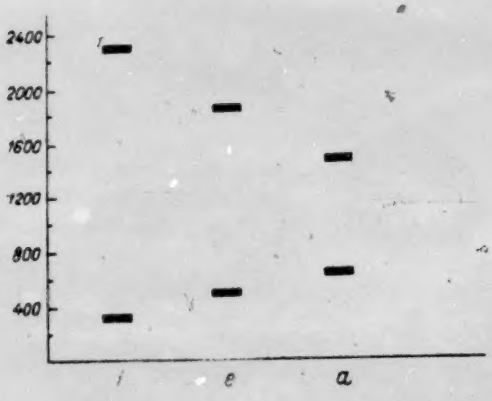


Chart no.5
Standard Romanian

Plotting the frequencies of Formant$_1$ in ordinate and Formant$_2$ in abscissa, we shall obtain the so-called "acoustic charts" which condense much more information than articulatory charts, because the formers reflect not only the tongue position, but the whole vocal tract resonance system, including the lips position.

For the purpose of facilitating the comparison between English standard vowels and English vowels uttered by the three speakers, we superimposed over the acoustic chart of all English vowels, the front vowels pronounced by the speakers CD, EP and HN, respectively the charts nr. 6, 7, 8. In the chart nr.9, we , superimposed over the acoustic chart of English cardinal vowels, the standard Romanian vowels /i/, /e/ and /a/, for the aim of making evident the difference between the two front vowel series (of English and Romanian).

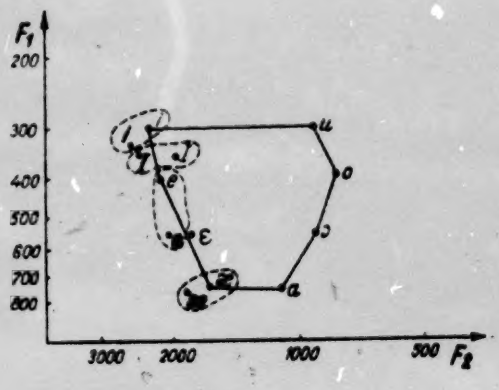


Chart no.6

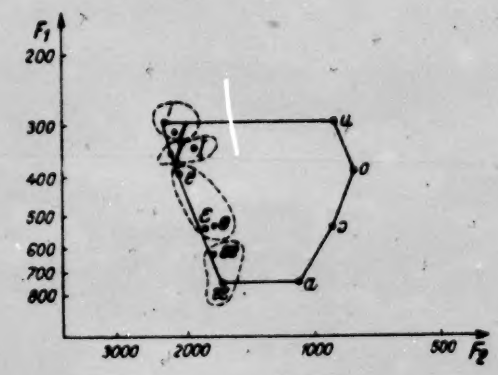


Chart no.7

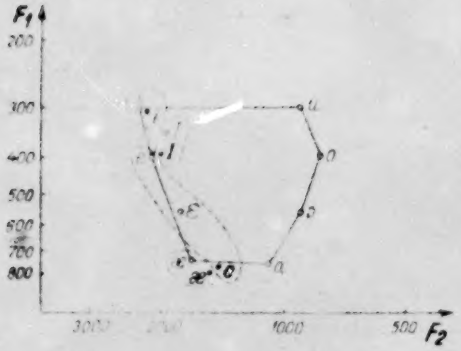


Chart no.8

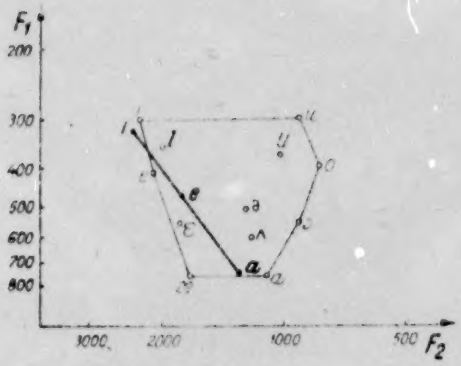


Chart no 9

It follows from (the significance of) the value of the two formants (F_2 high-acute character, F_2 low-grave character; F_1 high compact character, F_2 low-diffuse character), on the above maps that the degree of graveness of a vowel grows from left to right. Thus, if we look closely at the position of a vowel on these maps, we can easily discern its degree of graveness (or acuteness)or its degree of compactness (or diffuseness) in comparison with another vowel.

On examining the images in figs. 6, 7, 8 we notice, that, in general, the English front vowels pronounced by the speakers C.D., E.P. and H.N. are placed on the chart relatively close to their English standards. An exception is the English vowel /e/ which, in all cases is lower and more to the right than the standard English /e/, this meaning that the Romanian speakers (especially H.N.) pronounced this vowel more grave and more compact that they should have pronounced it. The explanation is found if we study the graph

in fig.9, where we can see that the standard Romanian /e/ is evidently more compact and less acute than the English /e/; that is to say that the pronunciation of English /e/ is influenced by the pronunciation of the Romanian vowel.

As to the other Romanian front vowel /i/, it is close enough to the close English /i:/ from a qualitative point of view, but, as we shall see, it differs in quantity from the latter. At last, the Romanian neutral vowel /ə/ is almost as compact as the English vowel /ɜ:/, from which it evidently differs, being far less acute than the latter.

If we look at the facts from the point of view of the target language, we shall notice that:

- out of the two English /i/, the closer in timbre to the Romanian i - is the (long) /i:/, differing from the former, first of all in duration. The other English (short) /i/, is more compact and less acute than the Romanian i, and, shorter, of course;

- out of the two English e[8], the one that is closer to the Romanian e, is the close English /e/, being more acute and more diffuse than the Romanian vowel. The English /ɜ:/ is very far from the Romanian /e/ along the diffuse/compact axis, being much more compact than this one and almost as compact as the Romanian ă (compared with which, it is, of course, more acute).

To make these remarks more useful, we shall sum up the differences between the English and the Romanian front vowels, translating the acoustic terms into articulatory ones: [9]

- the English /i:/ is qualitatively very close (in timbre) to the Romanian /i/ from which it differs quantitatively;

- the English /ɪ/ is more open and less front that the Romanian /i/ and shorter than the latter;

- the English /e/ is more to the front than the Romanian /e/ and more closed than the latter;

- the English /ɜ:/ resembles the Romanian /ə/ from the point of view of its place of articulation (it is almost as front as the latter) but it is more open than the Romanian vowel and very much close to the Romanian vowel /a/, from this point of view. It may

8 We want to make it clear that the English vowel /ɛ/ has not made the object of our study, since, because it appears only in diphthongs, it will be studied together with them.

9 For the correspondence between the acoustic and the articulatory features of the vowels, see B.Malmberg, Phonétique française, Malmö, 1969, p.22.

be supposed that this English vowel can be correctly pronounced by combining the place of articulation of the Romanian vowel /e/ with the degree of opening of the Romanian vowel ə.

Remarks on vowel length

If we take into account the many factors on which the length of a vowel depends, namely: the speech tempo, the position of the vowel in relationship to word and sentence stress, the number of syllables of the given word, the neighbourhood of certain consonants, etc.[10] we must consider our material to be insufficient (as number of informants and words recorded) for offering the relevant data, useful for comparison.

It is well-known that the English vowel length has a phonological role[11] it is distinctive, contributing to a change of meaning, while in Romanian, it is non-distinctive and it varies beyond the speakers' conscience, depending on the force with which the following consonant is articulated, as well as on other factors (a few of which we have already mentioned above). Thus, in Romanian, vowel length has no phonological role as compared with English, and it is achieved unconsciously and it is conditional.

It has been stated that the Romanian vowels are, in general, of a "medium" length.[12]

Taking into account the "standard" data[13] concerning the intrinsec length of the English vowels, we notice that the Romanian vowels pronounced by the speakers C.D., E.P. and H.N. (whom we consider to be insufficient in number) approach more the values of the short English vowels (see Table nr.2) .

---

10 See P.Neiescu, Contribuții la studiul variației de durată a fonemelor limbii române in CL 1, 1956, pp. 65-77.

11 Cf. P.Delattre, op.cit., p.63.

12 For instance, Ana Tătaru, Despre unele vocale ale limbii engleze privite comparativ cu vocalele limbii române, CL VI, 1961, p. 343.

13 The medium values considered to be standard have been taken from the article Duration of Syllable Nuclei in English, by G.Peterson and I.Lehiste, in J.A.S.A. vol.32, 1960, nr.6, p.702 (the article also refers to American English).

Table nr. 2

Vowel	Standard length of English vowels	C.D. English	E.P. English	H.N. English
/i:/	207	186	227	212
/I/	161	130	171	107
/æ/	284	120	155	155

(the figures represent milliseconds)

In English the difference in length between words like bit and beat is approximately 2 to 3. This ratio has a rather constant character and it refers especially to pairs of vowels where the length has a distinctive role: i/I, u/U, e/ , without there being a 1 to 1 correspondence between the long and the short vowels. In the volume referred to, P.Delattre shows that it is more correct to say that in English there are 7 "longer" vowels /i, u, e, o, æ, a, ɔ/ and 4 "shorter" vowels: /I, U, ɛ, ʌ/.[14]

As to the relation long vowel-short vowel, there should be made another remark after a close unspection of the study of Table nr.2: making an effort to achieve the oposition of length existing in English, our speakers have generally pronounced the short English vowels with a constant shorter duration than the long ones (we are reffering especially to the values in milliseconds of the two English i, contained in the columns C.D., E.P., H.N.), these differences regarding length do not correspond to the ratio 2/3.

Knowing that the phonological feature of quantity does not exist in the Romanian vowel system, and taking into account our preliminary remarks, we can state that the correct assimilation of the length features of the English vowels by the Romanian speakers is a difficult question and it needs great attention in the teaching of English.

The small number of subjects whose pronunciation was studied does not allow us, for the time being, to appreciate the relationship between the more or less correct character of their pronun-

14 p. 63 and 64.

ciation and the period during which they have studied English. It cannot be achieved yet a characterization or a delimitation between the pronunciation of the "beginners" as compared with that of "advanced" students of English. A classification of the data from this point of view, would, of course, be useful for teaching purposes, but at the present stage of the research, the only conclusion which we could reach is that they form a non-homogeneous group of speakers which must be treated as a whole from the point of view of their achievements in the target language.

A TENTATIVE APPROACH TO ROMANIAN-ENGLISH LEXICAL CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

by Edith Iarovici and
Rodica Mihăilă

0. The aim of the present paper is to put forward a possible approach to a contrastive analysis of the English and Romanian vocabularies.

It will first refer to a number of methodological aspects, and it will then establish several contrastive lexical types and subtypes.

Being a field of applied linguistics, contrastive analysis has been lately tending to go beyond the stage of abstract typological comparison and to deal especially with the implications of the comparative study of two languages for the teaching and learning of one of them.[1]

Our theoretical concerns are therefore mainly focussed upon a stage of applied linguistics, in so far as it enables us to establish - on the basis of our analysis - a hierarchic differentiation of the degrees of difficulty implied by the teaching and learning of the new language.

---

1 For the delimitation of the psycholinguistic framework of contrastive analysis, see William Nemser and Tatiana Slama-Cazacu, A Contribution to Contrastive Linguistics, in "Revue Roumaine de Linguistique", No.2/1970, p.104: "The emergent discipline, called contrastive linguistics, is defined as the subdiscipline of linguistics concerned with drawing the implications of structural similarities and dissimilarities between languages, with the principal objective of facilitating the learning of one of these languages - the 'target' language - by speakers of the other - the 'base' language (as it shall be referred to here). The procedure for ascertaining these relationships is called 'contrastive analysis'.
The information yielded by contrastive analysis is a presumed prerequisite for comprehensive and efficient pedagogic strategy (underlined by us), including guides for classroom procedures and the development of teaching materials.
Here, see also an ample bibliography of works on contrastive analysis.

1.1. The parallel examination of the vocabularies of two languages has a very ancient tradition. Any bilingual dictionary may represent a contrastive analysis "avant la lettre", But, unlike a dictionary, which has a more or less empirical basis, contrastive analysis, using a more rigorous theoretical instrument, aims at comparing the structures of the two languages.

1.2. Contrastive research has in view the synchronic aspect of the two languages that are being compared. But there occur certain ambiguous situations in which it is necessary to resort to the diachronic aspect in order to ascertain structural distances.

Bearing in mind the neutrality[2] of contrastive analysis towards the research method used, the authors, having concentrated their attention on the paradigmatic study of the vocabulary, have chosen the method of classic structuralism.

1.2.1. When adopting the structural method, we implicitly adopted the dichotomy form-meaning.

From this point of view, the word[3], or rather the lexeme, represents the unity of form and meaning.

Lexical contrastive analysis consists in comparing the two levels - form and meaning - taking into account the fact that each language segments these two levels in different ways.[4]

1.2.2. Our interpretation further views both the expression and the content of a word as divisible units.

First, there is the divisible unit of the form of a lexeme into morphemes, into roots and affixes.

---

2 D.Chițoran, Analiza contrastivă și procesul de predare și învățare a limbilor străine, in "Studii și cercetări lingvistice", No.2/1970, p.245: "One may say that contrastive analysis is neutral (underlined by us) towards every linguistic theory, i.e. it does not depend upon any of them."

3 As the word stands for an ambiguous notion and there are numberless opinions concerning its definition, we prefer the notion of lexeme, and whenever we resort to "word", we mean "lexeme". The lexeme represents the word in a more abstract manner, referring to the relation between a content and an expression, without taking into account the phonological or orthographic unit by which it is rendered, the various grammatical forms it may acquire - aspects that are most frequently referred to when the notion of "word" is used.

4 A comparative analysis of the specific manner in which each language segments the continuum of the two levels (in the "discreet" form of the word) is to be found in L.Hjelmslev's Prolegomena to a Theory of Language (The University of Wisconsin Press, 1963, p.52), for Danish, German and English.

When comparing two languages that have widely different lexical forms, one may establish similarities or dissimilarities of form structure. A meaning may be rendered by two or more unitary segments - in which case we are dealing with a structure - or by two or more separate segments - in which case we are dealing with a construction.

The segmentable unit of the form may constitute an element of contrast, by a comparison of the different ways in which the segmentation is achieved in each of the two languages. Moreover, on the basis of lexical morphemes (roots), words may be grouped into families, and the structure of word-families may be equivalent in the two languages, or richer or poorer in one of them, according to the productivity of affixation and composition.

Secondly, in connection with the divisible unit of the meaning, the authors have taken into account the more recent works of structural semantics[5], which interpret meaning as a fascicle of distinctive semantic features (DSF), established on the basis of distinctive oppositions.

It should be specified that vocabulary contrastive analysis does nor represent a purely semantic abalysis. It is based on the segmentable unit of the form of the world, from which one passes to an examination of the divisible unit of the meaning, studying the way in which certain DSF are converging towards one structure or another, towards one construction or another, in a different or similar manner in the two languages.

1.2.3. Besides these points of view, the present paper will take into account a functional criterion, i.e. the study of the linguisitic unit according to distributional relationships. Distributional analysis presupposes the description of linguistic elements according to their contextual distribution.

Both an extralinguistic and a linguistic context will be taken into consideration.

As far as the extralinguistic context is concerned, the distribution of words will be studied comparatively in the two languages, from the geographic, social, stylistic points of view.

As to the linguistic context, we distinguish between a grammatical distribution and a semantic one. The grammatical distri-

5 E.Coseriu, Sémantique diachronique structurale, TLL, II, 1, Strassbourg, 1964; B.Pottier, Vers une semantique moderne, TLL, II, 1, Strassbourg, 1964.

bution refers to the fact that the word belongs to a certain paradigmatic class.[6] This aspect is extremely important in any contrastive analysis involving English - a language in which the phenomenon of conversion is particularly frequent.[7]

The semantic distribution considers meaning as a contextual function. We do not just call context any individual environment (thus, in good cake, the context of good is cake), but we interpret the element of environment as a class (in our case, a semantic one). In good cake, cake belongs to the class of concrete nouns; good is therefore distributed in the context "concrete noun"; at the same time, it may be distributed in the context "non-concrete noun" - e.g. good idea - or "non-concrete spiritual noun" - e.g. good friend.

Distribution is viewed not as a sum of all undifferentiated contexts, but as the grading of the latter according to their relationships of inclusion or exclusion.

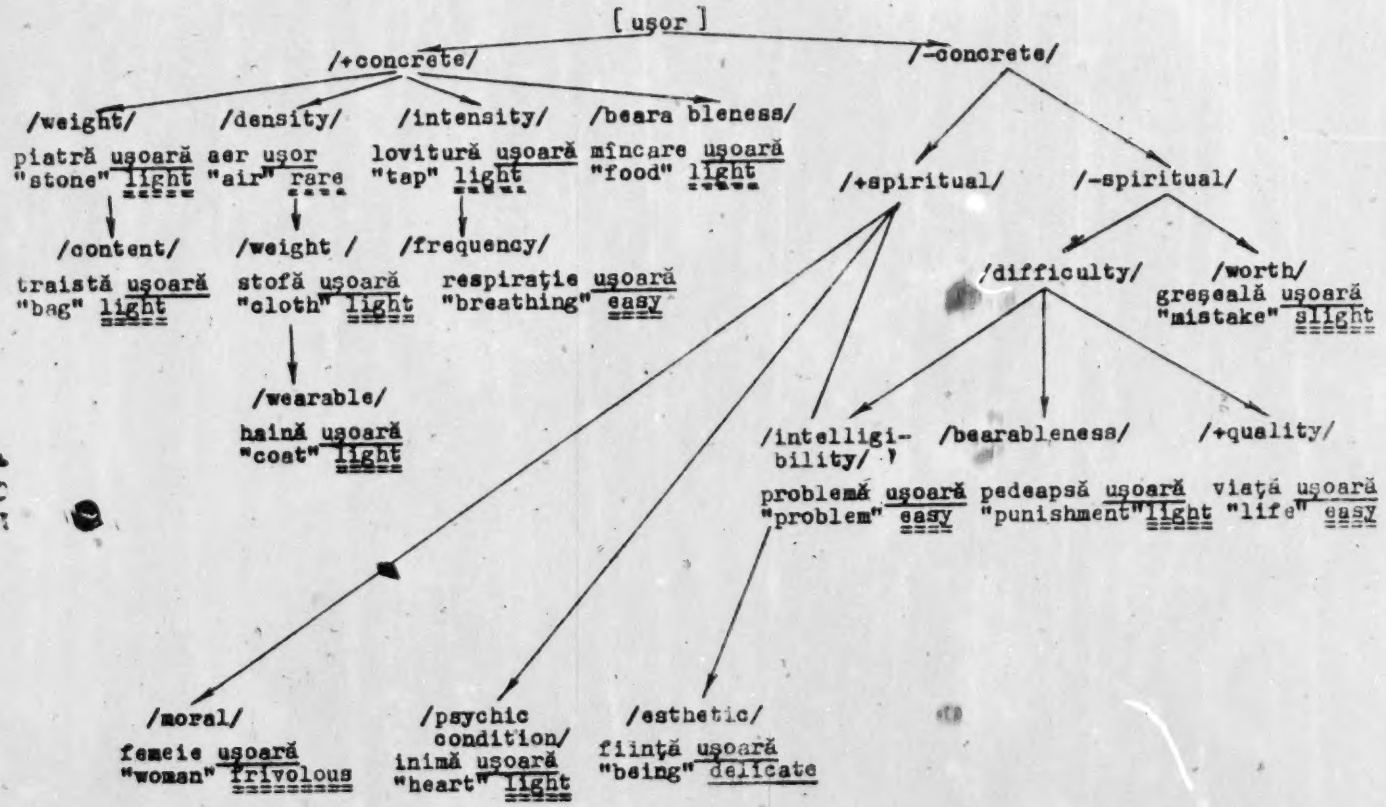
Such a distributional interpretation of meaning implies the prerequisite of establishing the hierarchy of distinctive semantic features. The utility of this method from the point of view of contrastive analysis is revealed by the fact that it enables us to compare the meaning on the basis of a structure (distributional relationships), which may be similar or not in the two languages.

Let us take the example of Romanian ușor, with its English counterparts, according to contextual distribution.

---

6 Cf. Robert P.Stockwell, J.Donald Bowen and John W.Martin, The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish (The University of Chicago Press, 1966), Chapter 10, Lexical Differences. The authors approach the problem in a rather similar way, analyzing the word according to certain levels (ranges): syntactic range, morphologic range, etc.

7 See Edith Iarovici, Conversiunea în engleza modernă, "Analele Universității București", 1966.


[uşor]
/+concrete/
/-concrete/
/weight/
/density/
/intensity/
/beara bleness/
piatră uşoară "stone" light
aer uşor "air" rare
lovitură uşoară "tap" light
mîncare uşoară "food" light
/content/
/weight /
/frequency/
traistă uşoară "bag" light
stofă uşoară "cloth" light
respiraţie uşoară "breathing" easy
/wearable/
haină uşoară "coat" light
/+spiritual/
/-spiritual/
/difficulty/
/worth/
greşeală uşoară "mistake" slight
/intelligi- bility/
/bearableness/
/+quality/
problemă uşoară "problem" easy
pedeapsă uşoară "punishment" light
viaţă uşoară "life" easy
/moral/
/psychic condition/
/esthetic/
femeie uşoară "woman" frivolous
inimă uşoară "heart" light
fiinţă uşoară "being" delicate

2. On the basis of the afore-said methodological considerations, we will establish several types of contrastive structures :

1) similar or identical form and similar or identical meaning - COGNATES;
2) similar or identical form and different meaning - DECEPTIVE COGNATES;
3) different form and similar or identical meaning - DIFFERENT FORMS.

In Linguistics across Cultures, Robert Lado gives a similar classification[8] - from which we have borrowed the basic terminology. It is likewise based on the dichotomy form-meaning. But Lado does not go any further into the divisibility of form and meaning.

Starting from these main types, we will establish the following subtypes:

2.1. In the case of cognates, we find that both their similarity of form and their similarity of meaning are relative.

2.1.1. The following variants are cognates proper or full cognates:

a. Lexical units having an identical form or very slight differences or pronunciation, e.g. Engl. actor - Rom. actor, Engl. animal - Rom. animal, Engl. attack - Rom. atac, Engl. barber -Rom. bărbier, and lexical units having an approximately identical form, very well-marked in spelling, but less so in pronunciation, e.g. Engl. complete - Rom. complet, Engl. correct - Rom. corect, Engl. effect - Rom. efect, Engl. essential - Rom. esential. Cognates may sometimes be recognized only in their written form, their pronunciation being completely different, e.g. Engl. admire - Rom. a admira, Engl. centre - Rom. centru, Engl. circular - Rom. circular, Engl. contain - Rom. a conține. When even the written form is only partly similar, it may be necessary to resort to a diachronic criterion in order to find out if the English and the Rosenian word are cognates or not, e.g. Engl. approve - Rom. a aproba, Engl. courage - Rom. curaj, Engl. equal - Rom. egal.

b. Another variant is represented by units having a similar form which results from an identical structure, but with different affixes, e.g. Engl. attraction - Rom. atracție, Engl. unarmed - Rom. neînarmat; different inflexions, e.g. Engl. actress - Rom. actriță, Engl. adapted - Rom. adaptat; different endings, e.g. Engl.

8 R. Lado, Linguistics across Cultures (The University of Michigan Press, 1958, Chapter 4.

amuse - Rom. a amuza, Engl. article - Rom. articol; or a similar form based on different structures, e.g. Engl. agricultural- Rom. agricol, Engl. entrance - Rom. intrare.

c. The third variant is represented by similar or different constructions; similar collocations like Engl. by profession - Rom. de profesie, Engl. in despair - Rom. în disperare, Engl. with pleasure - Rom. cu plăcere; different constructions like Engl. conversational - Rom. de conversație, Engl. especially - Rom. în special, Engl. inconceivable - Rom. de neconceput.

Sometimes a word may have two cognate counterparts, one of which is based on a different structure and the other one on a different construction, e.f. Engl. confidentially - Rom. confidențial, în mod confidențial, Engl. continuously - Rom. incontinuu, în mod continuu, Engl. personally - Rom. personal, în persoană.

2.1.2. Alongside full cognates, there is the type partial cognates. While the meaning or meanings of full cognates are identical, they are only partially identical in the case of partial cognates: they do not overlap completely. Thus, Engl. to act is rendered in Romanian in the following distribution:

Engl. act
- DSF_1 /activity, behaviour/ - Rom. a acționa
- DSF_2 /activity, functioning/ - a sluji de, a funcționa
- DSF_3 /activity, drama/ - a juca teatru

Therefore, Engl. to act and Rom. a acționa are cognates only for DSF_1, but not for DSF_2 and DSF_3.

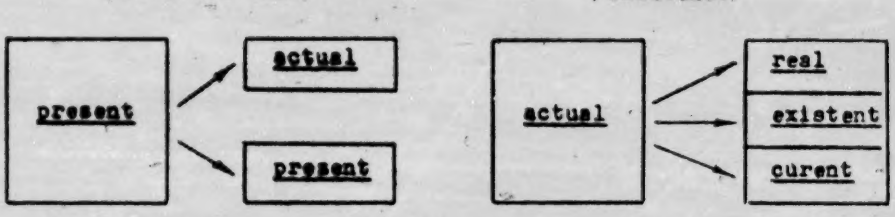
To confuse may likewise be the equivalent of a confunda, but it often means a încurca. Balance corresponds to balanță, but also to cîntar, echilibru, bilanț. Rom. cake has a more restricted distribution than Engl. cake, which also means prăjitură, turtă, calup, bucată.

The partial relationship sometimes revêals itself in the distribution of an English word to the meanings of derived forms which belong to one and the same family in Romanian. Each of these derivatives is a cognate of the given word, e.g. Engl. consideration and Rom. considerație, considerent, considerare. Such cases are accounted for by diachrony: considerație and considerent were borrowed from French and considerare was created within the language, on the basis of a French etymon.

2.2. Deceptive cognates represent a type which may deceive us completely or partly.

2.2.1. For the first subtype we cite Engl. actual, which is never rendered by Rom. actual. Engl. actual is characterized by DSF /existence/, corresponding in Romanian to real, existent, curent, while Rom. actual is characterized by DSF /relative time/ and the corresponding English lexeme is present, which is at the same time a cognate of Rom. prezent.

The diagram given below illustrates this rather complex situation:



In the same way, Engl. advertisement never has the sense of Rom. avertisment (Engl. warning); it corresponds to Rom. anunț, reclamă, publicitate.

2.2.2. By partly deceptive cognates we designate the subtype that deceives only partly, i.e. only for certain DSF. Thus, Engl. adventure and Rom. aventură overlap to a large extent, but the former never has the sense of Rom. aventură amoroasă, which is rendered by Engl. affair. For Romanians who know French, affair in its turn is partly deceptive, for it never means business transaction, speculation, bargain, law-suit, belongings, etc.

Cognates may be fully or partly deceptive both in their spoken and their written form (as with the examples given above), or only in the latter (e.g. account, basin, blame, button, cap, caution).

2.3. Different forms represent the most widespread type of contrast between two languages. The meanings of words having different forms may be identical or similar.

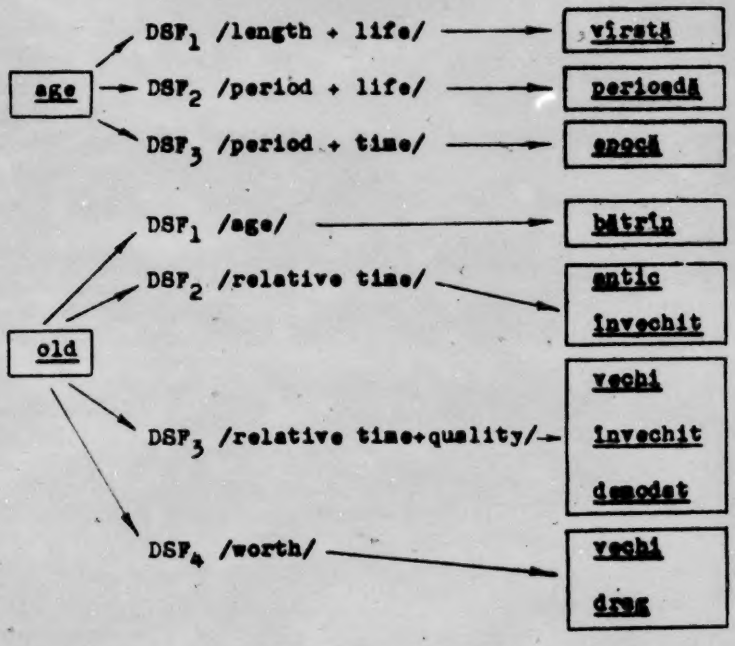
2.3.1. Different forms having identical meanings belong to the sphere of concrete things or actions, e.g. Engl. beak - Rom. cioc, Engl. grass - Rom. iarbă, Engl. jump - Rom. săritură, Engl. sparrow - Rom. vrabie. We also include in this category the subtype of words having an identical distribution, e.g. Engl. earth - Rom. pămînt. They may be illustrated by the following diagram:

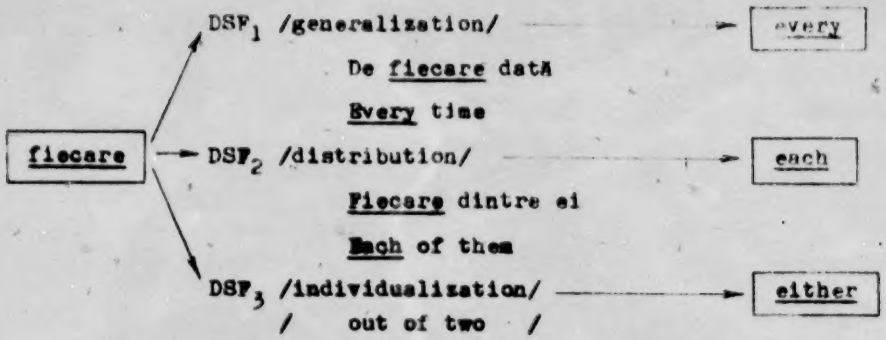
DSF_1	/ground/	To come down to earth. A coborî pe pămînt.
DSF_2	/matter, soil/	Dig up a little earth with the plant. Scoate puţin pămînt cu planta.
DSF_3	/element of physical geography/	Earth and sea and sky. Pămîntul şi marea şi cerul.
DSF_4	/planet/	The earth and the moon. Pămîntul şi luna.
DSF_4^1	/world/	All the peoples on earth. Toate popoarele de pe pămînt.

Other examples in point are always, blind, dream, to drink, evening, etc.

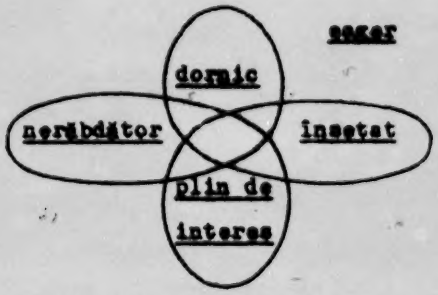
2.3.2. In most cases, different forms have similar meanings, which imply:

a. A different distribution (with meanings that are not in very great contrast - polysemy), as with Engl. age, Engl. old or Rom. fiecare:





b. Similarity of meaning may be expressed by the impossibility to find a perfect equivalent in one of the two languages. Thus, Engl. eager means either dornic, însetat (e.g. in "eager for more work"), or nerăbdător, plin de interes (e.g. in "eager eyes"). In such a case, the graphic representation is the following:



In the same way, Rom. dor corresponds to Engl. longing, yearning, nostalgia, craving, love, grief.[9]

9 In many of these situations, when the translation can be but an approximate one, the word is finally borrowed from the respective language, e.g. Rom. dandi < Engl. dandy (through French), Rom. pulover < Engl. pull-over, Rom. splin < Engl. spleen (through French), Rom. volei < Engl. volley-ball. This sort of situation occurs very frequently in the field of technical terms, e.g. hardware, LSM, managing, marketing, mass media, play-back. Languages in contact (here again a diachronic explanation is necessary) have often borrowed from each other those words for which they had no exact equivalents. This phenomenon enriches the type of cognates.

When we examine lexical units that are different forms having identical or similar meanings, we notice that, although the forms are different, they may have certain similarities of structure or construction. Thus, there is a correspondence between the structures of Engl. angry and Rom. mînios, Engl. childish and Rom. copilăros, Engl. earthly and Rom. pămîntesc, lumesc, Engl. enjoyable and Rom. agreabil, Engl. blinded and Rom. orbit, Engl. coolness and Rom. răceală, Engl. conqueror and Rom. cuceritor, and between the constructions Engl. afternoon and Rom. după amiază, Engl. anywhere and Rom. oriunde, Engl. goodwill and Rom. bună voință, Engl. sunflower and Rom. floarea soarelui, Engl. a bit and Rom. un pic, etc.

But in most cases, the difference of form manifests itself also in dissimilarity of structure and construction. Thus, Engl. everlasting is a compound, while Rom. veșnic and nesfîrșit are derivatives. For certain English compounds, the Romanian equivalent is a simple unit, e.g. Engl. blackboard and Rom. tablă, Engl. father-in-law and Rom. socru, Engl. to whitewash and Rom. a spoi. This strikes us especially when we have to render the numerous English complex verbs into Romanian, e.g. Engl. to bring up - Rom. a crește, a educa, Engl. to carry on - Rom. a desfășura, Engl. to cut off - Rom. a reteza, Engl. to drive away - Rom. a izgoni, Engl. to get down - Rom. a coborî, Engl. to take down - Rom. a nota, Engl. to take off - Rom. a decola.

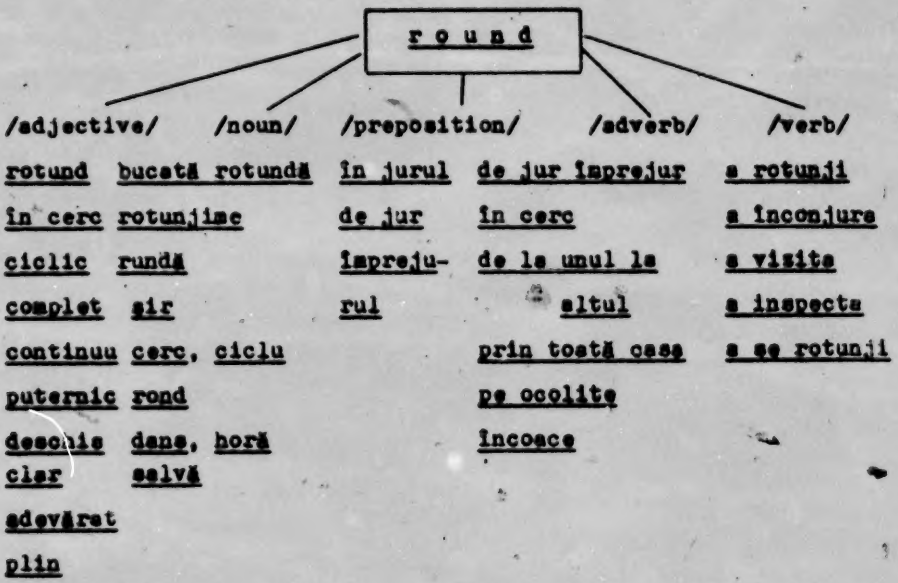
Sometimes the dissimilarity of structure or construction is so great that it actually implies the use of a long circumlocution in one of the two languages for rendering a lexical unit belonging to the other one, e.g. Engl. antibreintruster - Rom. adversar al consultării unor grupuri de specialiști, Engl. diskjockey - Rom. prezentator de programe de muzică ușoară, Engl. first-nighter - Rom. vizitator obișnuit al premierelor teatrale, Engl. clockwise - Rom. în sensul acelor unui ceasornic; Rom. poimîine - Engl. the day after tomorrow, Rom. buimac - Engl. heavy with sleep, Rom. a se dezobișnui - Engl. to grow out of a habit, Rom. a se răzgîndi - Engl. to change one's mind.

2.4. A contrastive analysis should not lose sight of the various aspects concerning the distribution (geographic, grammatical, etc.) and the connotations of words in the two languages that are being confronted.

2.4.1. The geographic distribution of words has to be borne in mind especially on account of the numerous "Americanisms" which

may raise certain difficulties. Thus, Engl. bug corresponds to Rom. plosniță in Britain and to Rom. insectă, gînganie in the U.S.A. On the other hand, Rom. ascensor is the equivalent of lift in Britain and of elevator in America. Here we might mention Robert Lado's "strange meanings", which he illustrates by means of Amer. Engl. first floor[10] (corresponding to ground-floor in Br. Engl. and to prinul nivel in Romanian).

2.4.2. Grammatical distribution plays an important part, too, for the restrictions in distribution differ from one language to another. Thus, most English words have more than one function. Engl. mouth corresponds to Rom. gură, but it may also be a verb, both transitive and intransitive, meaning a rosti, a pune în gură, a mesteca, a ține discursuri. Engl. round has as many as five different grammatical functions (distributions) : adjective, noun, preposition, adverb, verb. None of their Romanian equivalents has been converted from any of the others. A few belong to the same family of words, but most of them have no connexion with one another, as may be seen in the diagram below:



Another aspect of different grammatical distribution lies in what may be called morphological or syntactical status, e.g. with

10 Op.cit., Chapter 4.

the ways of expressing the various grammatical categories analytically or synthetically, with transitivity, with voice, etc. Thus, the category of gender implies differences such as Engl. cousin - Rom. văr, vară; there is an analytic possibility of marking gender, i.e. boy-cousin, girl-cousin, gentleman-cousin, lady-cousin. The comparison of adjectives, which is analytic in Romanian, may be analytic or synthetic in English, e.g. Rom. bogat - mai bogat - cel mai bogat, Engl. rich - richer - the richest. The English verb to bleed is both transitive and intransitive, whereas its Romanian equivalent a sîngera is only intransitive and a lua sînge is the counterpart of the English transitive to bleed. Passing to the problem of voice, it is sufficient to pick out just one of the numerous exampples of different distribution: Engl. to complain corresponding to Rom. a se plînge.

As lexical contrastive analysis cannot be purely semantic, we have to refer to certain grammatical implications, but naturally without going into a detailed grammatical contrastive analysis.

2.4.3. Another semantic contrastive relationship may be established according to differences in connotation. Thus, Engl. thing, which is generally the equivalent of Rom. lucru, obiect, may sometimes acquire an emotional connotation, when it designates a person or an animal, e.g. in "His sister is a sweet little thing" - "Sora lui e o făptură încîntătoare", "Poor thing, he's ill !" - "Bietul băiat, e bolnav !"

Engl. creature may express admiration, pity or contempt, but the only possible connotation of Rom. creatură is that of contempt: "Mary was a lovely creature, 16 years old". - "Mary era o fată frumoasă, în vîrstă de 16 ani". "That poor creature has lost all hope". - "Sărmanul de el, a pierdut orice speranţă". "That creature is capable of anything !" - "Creatura aceea este în stare de orice !"

These situations can be introduced into our scheme, viz. into the class of differences of semantic distribution, but we must add that connotation are translated approximately in most cases, for we are dealing with a semantic similarity belonging to subtype b., like the one discussed in connexion with Engl. eager or Rom. dor.

2.5. The study of word families in English and Romanian makes lexical relationship become clearer. Thus, the basic element in the family of Engl. act is the noun act, which is a partly deceptive cognate of the Romanian counterpart act (see also paper, a different form). The Engl. verb act is a partial cognate of Rom. a ac-

A C T

				Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
COGNATES	Identical Form						
	Similar Form	(with slight difference of:)	pronunciation	actor-actor		active-activ	
			structure	actress-actriţă activity-activitate			actively-activ
			construction				actively-în mod activ
PARTIAL COGNATES					act - a acţiona (a sluji de, a juca teatru)		
PARTLY DECEPTIVE COGNATES	Ident. Form			act - act (nu act "paper"			
	Similar Form			action - acţiune (nu acţiune "share")			
DIFFERENT FORMS				paper - act share - acţiune	act - a sluji de a juca teatru		

tions (a sluji de, a juca teatru are different forms). The Engl. noun action is a partly deceptive cognate of Rom. actiune (see also sinare, a different form). The other derivatives are cognates, with slight differences of form (pronunciation, structure, construction).

Here is a diagram of the main words belonging to the family of Engl. act and their Romanian equivalents (see p.14o).

3. In conclusion, we have tried to establish a few contrastive lexical types that should be useful for an analysis based on the dictionary, therefore a somewhat empiric analysis, consisting in the inventory of all elements. An attempt to ascertain equivalences of semantic superstructures would have gone beyond the pedagogical aims of contrastive analysis.

With a view to having a unitary picture of the contrastive types and subtypes we operate with, we offer the following classification (see p.142).

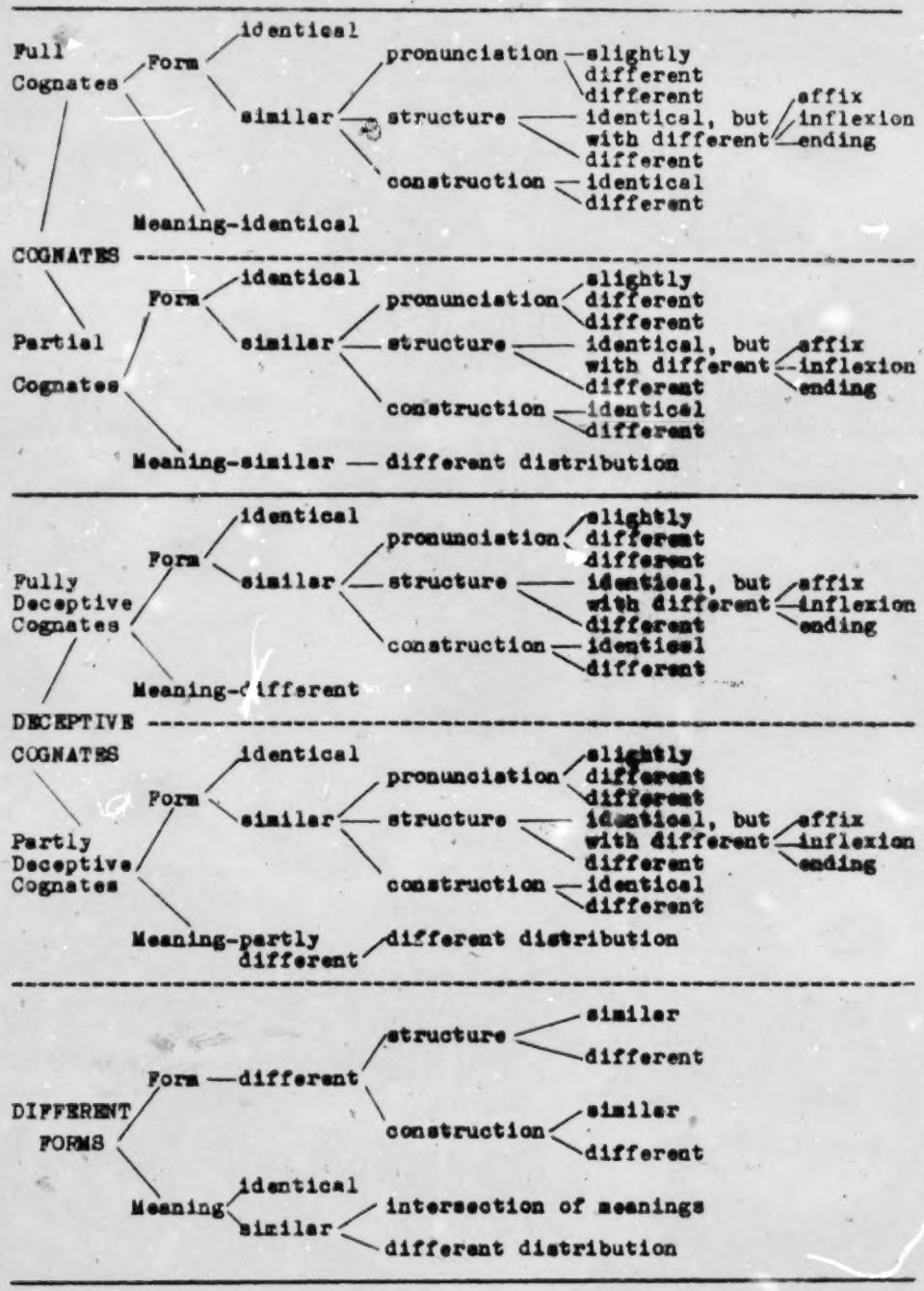
Besides these types and subtypes, it is necessary to take into account the grouping of words according to their grammatical, stylistic, social and geographic distribution.

On the basis of our classification, it is possible to evaluate and predict the degree of difficulty of the English vocabulary for Romanian learners, and that is actually the aim of contrastive analysis. It constitutes another stage - an applied one, which follows the theoretical stage quite naturally. In our opinion, there are four levels of difficulty : easy, normal, difficult, very difficult (see p.143).

Teachers and textbook writers should bear these levels of difficulty in mind and carefully grade the words to be taught (and their meanings) in a succession based both on their difficulty and on their frequency of use.

That is why it would be extremely useful to have an English-Romanian dictionary containing the most frequent words, in their most frequent senses, with abbreviated indications concerning the group they belong to, their degree of difficulty, their distribution, etc. Besides, the dictionary should have an appendix formed of lists of words (and meanings) arranged according to their patterns of frequency and difficulty, having in view the first four of five stages of language learning.

For the compilation of such a dictionary, it is necessary to start from a limited vocabulary of about 2,000 words such as Mi-


Full Cognates
Form
identical
similar
pronunciation
slightly different
different
structure
identical, but with different
affix
inflexion
ending
different
construction
identical
different
Meaning-identical
COGNATES
Partial Cognates
Form
identical
similar
pronunciation
slightly different
different
structure
identical, but with different
affix
inflexion
ending
different
construction
identical
different
Meaning-similar
different distribution
Fully Deceptive Cognates
Form
identical
similar
pronunciation
slightly different
different
structure
identical, but with different
affix
inflexion
ending
different
construction
identical
different
Meaning-different
DECEPTIVE COGNATES
Partly Deceptive Cognates
Form
identical
similar
pronunciation
slightly different
different
structure
identical, but with different
affix
inflexion
ending
different
construction
identical
different
Meaning-partly different
different distribution
DIFFERENT FORMS
Form
different
structure
similar
different
construction
similar
different
Meaning
identical
similar
intersection of meanings
different distribution

Easy	cognates different forms (similar structure or construction, identical meaning)
Normal	partial cognates different forms (different structure or construction, identical meaning)
Difficult	partly deceptive cognates (similar forms) different forms (similar meaning)
Very difficult	partly deceptive cognates (identical forms) fully deceptive cognates words having a widely different (semantic, grammatical, social, geographic) distribution or different connotations

chael West's General Service List of English Words (London,1959). Although its criteria are not very consistent and its frequency counts are not complete, it may be used as a starting-point for a compared sample, which could be enlarged later, on the basis of more comprehensive frequency dictionaries and of the patterns of similarity, dissimilarity and difficulty established during the initial stage.

Besides, it would be extremely useful and interesting, as a further step, to pass from the phase of contrastive analysis for Romanian learners of English to that of contrastive analysis for English and American learners of Romanian.

As it is aimed at combining the theoretical aspect and the applied one, the present paper is far from covering all the problems that are related to lexical contrastive analysis.

Being pioneer work, our research offers nothing but a starting point.

PRODUCTIVE AND NON-PRODUCTIVE STRUCTURES IN THE CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND ROMANIAN

by Pompiliu Georgescu

First and foremost, we want to mention that the leading purpose of our essay is to point out some of the problems arisen from the contrastive analysis of English and Romanian on the syntactic structures level.

We are going to pay special attention to some aspects which have been less discussed in the existing contrastive studies- namely to structures as being productive or non-productive.

Before entering upon the matter under consideration, it is worth mentioning the fact that our method of investigation is- to a large extent - indebted to transformational generative grammar, which we have been concerned with for some time past. Even the dichotomy "productive/non-productive" reminds us of the idea lying at the basis of generative grammar - that of "generating" new and new structures of grammatical sequences starting from the basic ones, i.e. from the so-called "nuclear" or "kernel sentences".

But a careful analysis of the linguistic data leads us to the conclusion that any language makes use of much more numerous structural patterns than those set off by the different research workers who have approached this subject since Noam Chomsky's "Syntactic Structures" so far - and that structures, either derived or non-derived, display various degrees of productivity.

Thus, if we can speak about a differentiated productivity among structures within the framework of one and the same language - it may reasonably be claimed that the question makes itself even more conspicuous within a contrastive analysis, where we deal with two more or less different systems.

But let us explain what we mean by a "productive" or "non-productive" structure. We shall try to do it by availing ourselves

of the target language, which is English in our analysis.

Almost any grammar or attempt to make up a grammar, based on generative principles - starts from the classical example of a binary construction, consisting of a "subject and a predicate", - approach originating in Aristotel's theory of logical propositions made up of two absolutely compulsory constituents: "noun" and "verb"[1].

No doubt that if we start from subject + predicate structures and carry on our investigation, by taking into consideration and turning to account the most important generalizations about language acquired by traditional grammar and parsing - we may easily get to those highly productive nuclear syntactic structures. Then by further applying some special rules to the nuclear sentences we may get to a multitude of other grammatical sequences of the language, like those produced by speakers, themselves.

We do not want to go into details at all, but it is worth following the way in which a transformational grammar is developing its theoretical basis, as it will help us, on the one hand to better understand the distinction between productive and non-productive, and on the other hand it will lead us to a more judicious valuation of its importance in the contrastive analysis.

As we have already said, we start initially from sentences of the subject + predicate type: "Birds fly" or "Helen sings" etc.

We may say that a sentence (S) consists of a subject, which is usually a noun phrase (N.P.) plus a predicate, which is usually known under the form of a verb phrase (V.P.). Thus S → NP+VP.

Now we shall further concentrate upon the second part of the formula purposely and begin drawing attention to the distinction - made by many grammarians[2] between the verb to be and all the other notional verbs (NV). This being so, we can say that a verbal phrase may consist of either the verb to be plus a predicate complement (Pred.Comp.) or a notional verb (NV), which may be - in its turn - either an intransitive verb (V_i) or a transitive verb (V_t) followed by an object, or a copulative verb (V_c) usually followed by a subjective complement (Subj.Compl.)

---

1 Aristotel, Organon I, Editura Ştiinţifică, Bucureşti, 1957, p.206.

2 Thomas, Owen, Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965, pp.31-38; Roberts, Paul, English Sentences, New York, Harcourt, Brace and Wald, Inc., 1962, pp.25, 52-54, 226-227.

All these may be preceeded or not by a modal auxiliary (Aux.) and - may be followed or not by an adverb (Adv.). As we have got to something which is optional ( ) we stop here and turn to account those above mentioned in the following table:

	Position				
Type	1	2	3	4	5
A	NP	(Aux)	Be	Pred. Comp.	(Adv)
B	NP	(Aux)	V_i	$\emptyset$	(Adv)
C	NP	(Aux)	V_t	Obj	(Adv)
D	NP	(Aux)	V_c	Subj. Comp.	(Adv)

According to that table we may have structures of the following types:

A. The boy is happy. (NP + Be + Pred.Comp.)
B. The boy runs. (NP + V_i + $\emptyset$)
C. The boy learns a poem. (NP + V_t + Object.)
D. The boy looks tired. (NP + V_c + Subj.Comp.)

The examples made up on the basis of the table underlie the basic sentence types in English (the so-called "nuclear" or "kernel sentences"); all the other structures being "derived" or "generated" from the basic ones through different operations of: deletion, expansion, addition, permutation, etc....[1]

The most important characteristic of these structures is the fact that they are extremely productive and each of the sentence types in the table can prove it. For example: the C type sentence in our table may be expanded considerably by "addition" applied to different positions. (We apply it only to position 1 and 4.)

POSITION

1	3	4
The boys	learn	poems
	I	
The boys		
The little boys		
The naughty little boys		

1 Bach, Emmon, An Introduction to Transformational Grammars, New York, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964, p.7o.

The little boys of the Palmers
The little boys and their elder sisters
The little boys and their elder sisters standing by the fire
The little boys and their elder sisters standing by the fire to warm themselves, etc....

4

... poems
... several interesting poems
... several poems by heart
... a lot of long and interesting poems by heart
... a lot of long and interesting poems and nice songs by heart, etc....

It is in this way that we understand the notion of productivity.

But there are structures in any language that do not conform to the basic patterns and do not display the same degree of productivity. Let us think of some structures such as:

Hello!; Peter!; Better late than never!; ... and see to what extent they can generate new structures, that is to establish their degree of productivity. The conclusion one can easily come to is that while some of them may undergo small or very small transformations in the sense of "expansion" for instance - others do not seem to undergo any variation at all.

If for "Peter!" - we might give "dear Peter" or "poor old Peter", examples like "Better late than never", seem to be so closely linked by their lexical message so that we can hardly destroy their individuality some way or other.

That is why we feel inclined to consider all those structures as non-productive.

One may have good reason to ask what is the element that make structures differ so much in their capacity to "generate" other new variants ? The answer might prove to require a more thorough - going study but it seems to us that their different capacity is largely determined - besides the nature of their semantic message, by the presence or absence of a verb form in these structures, and many of the further details of this essay may be considered arguments in favour of this assertion.

As the productive structures are much better known thanks to numerous generative grammars and studies published, so far, we are

going to deal with the non-productive structures and especially to follow the way they operate in the English language and try to set off some of the most significant aspects for a contrastive analysis of the two languages.

On the whole, there might be distinguished two[1] main classes of non-productive structures which we shall refer to as:

I. Introductories.

II. Responses.

I. The first class of structures - we called introductories - includes those structures that:

- usually begin a discourse or a conversation and

- are characterized by an increased formal and structural independence of a previous utterance or sentence, on which they depend only semantically. Structures belonging to this class may be found:

I a.- in exclamatory sentence types like: "Bother!"; "Good gracious!"; "Hello!"; "Margaret!"; "Stuff and nonsense"!; "Hot dog!"; "My goodness!"; "Honour bright"; "It is the last straw!"; "Up with you!"; "Queen Anne is dead!"; "Bottoms up!" etc....

Most of them belong to Colloquial English and particularly to "Slang", which abounds in structures of that type.

I b.- in sayings, proverbs, aphorisms... generally in the so-called gnomic sentences such as:

"The sooner, the better"	R. "Cu cît mai curînd cu atît mai bine"
"The more, the merrier"	R. "Cu cît sîntem mai mulţi cu atît mai veseli"
"Out of sight, out of mind"	R. "Ochii care nu se văd se uită"
"Lightly come, lightly go"	R. "De hăram a venit, de hăram s-a dus"
"Penny wise and pound foolish"	R. "Scump la tărîţă şi ieftin la făină"
"So many countries, so many customs"	R. "Cîte bordeie, atîtea obiceie"

1 On the distinction and classes of structures. Robins, R., H., General Linguistics. An Introductory Survey, London, Longmans, Green and Co. Ltd., 1965, pp.232-234.

"Such carpenters, such chips" R. "Cum e turcul, şi pistolul"

"All covet, all lose" R. "Lăcomia pierde omenia"

etc. ...

II. The second class of non-productive structures - "responses" - comprises, as the term itself points out, certain answers or remarks suggested and wholly conditioned by something already mentioned. Therefore, they display a reduced degree of structural independence, being - more often than not, parts of some longer and more complex structures previously expressed.

However, the structures belonging to this latter type prove to be more productive than the structures we referred to as "introductories" because of the more frequent presence of the verb in these "responses".

They may fall into two main categories, as well.

II.1. The first category includes - responses to different previous utterances. Let us suppose that one speaker says:

"He's a good doctor" - to which somebody else adds:

"So he is" - in Romanian: "Aşa e".

It is worth pointing out the way those structures operate in the two languages, as they bring out in bold relief highly different capacities to generate new possibilities.

In Romanian - "aşa e" - remains the same in all possible variants the English example might produce. Here is a comparative table:

English	Romanian
So he is.	(one form only)
So he was.	
So he has.	
So he had.	
So he can.	
So he could.	
So he may.	Aşa e.
So he might.	
So he must.	
So he does.	
So he did.	
So he will.	

So he would.[1]

.....

Certainly, the example is neither the most productive nor the most striking one we might refer to.

We think e.g. of the well-known construction usually called "tag", "tail" or "disjunctive question" - invariably translated into Romanian by "nu-i așa?". How various in form and frequent in usage that question is in English as compared to the Romanian equivalent!

Taking into consideration only the formal aspect of the issue we may have the following chart, which makes any commentary superfluous.

English	Romanian
He is not a good doctor, is he ?	Nu e un doctor bun, nu-i așa ?
.....	.....
(other possible forms)	(one form only - rarely "așa?"
..., isn't he ?	
..., has he ?	
..., hasn't he ?	
..., had he ?	
..., hadn't he ?	
..., does he ?	
..., doesn't he ?	
..., did he ?	
..., didn't he ?	
..., can he ?	..., nu-i așa ?
..., can't he ?	
..., may he ?	
..., mayn't he ?	
..., must he ?	
..., mustn't he ?	
..., could he ?	
..., couldn't he ?	

[1] Note: The table does not include the possibilities generated, in English from the derivation at the noun-phrase level, which will undoubtedly bring about a greater formal discrepancy between the English pattern and its Romanian equivalent.

..., might he ?
..., mightn't he ?
..., will he ?
..., won't he ?
..., should he ?
..., shouldn't he ?
..., would he ?
..., wouldn't he ?
..., shall he ?
..., shan't he ?
.....

But there are cases when structures manifest a greater variety and productivity in Romanian than in English. We give the following example in which there are two speakers involved:

First : "She is a good actress".
Second : "Is she ?"

Unlike the English speaker, the Romanian one has a greater number of variants at his disposal for "is she?", particularly when the idea is also emphasized by means of intonation.

Here are just a couple of them comparatively:

English	Romanian
	Zău ?
	Aşa ?
	Adevărat ?
Is she ?	Intr-adevăr ?
	Ce vorbeşti ?
	Ei aş !
	Nu mai spune !
	.....

II.2. The second category of non-productive structures includes "responses" not to exclamatory sentences, but to interrogative ones. Examples:

"Yesterday".	as a response to possible question:	"When did you find it?"
"In London".	"	"Where is he living ?"
"Nothing".	"	"What did he say ?"
"John",	"	"Who(m) did he meet at the library ?"

Structures of this latter type differ from the others in two ways, at least:

a) All of them are responses to wh - or special questions, and

b) May be considered as - incomplete or elliptical forms of some other structures, generated in the process of derivation.

"In London" - for example - may be considered the result of the application of a reduction rule to the complete structure : "He is living in London". As one can easily notice, that latter category of non-productive structures does not imply special difficulties for a contrastive study. That is why we shall not dwell upon it any longer and put an end to our essay reminding you of the fact that we have purposely focused our attention only over a few of the numerous aspects, a contrastive analysis on the structural level might give rise to.

The primary aim of the essay was not to exhaust the problems it referred to, here and there, but to point out how interesting and useful such an analysis could be both theoretically and practically.

No doubt that more comprehensive contrastive studies might contribute not only to a better and more complete description of the two languages, but also to planning improved teaching materials and methods - both in Romania for the teaching of English and the United States for the teaching of the Romanian language.

ASPECTS OF NOMINALIZATION IN ENGLISH AND ROMANIAN

by Alexandra Petrovan

1. Nominalization means the conversion, the transformation of a sentence into a nominal group, a noun or a noun modifier. This is done through a series of transformation which act after the embedding of the constituent sentence into the matrix sentence. The result is a syntactic derivative of the given sentence that is a form whose meaning is identical with that of the base form but which has a different syntactic function and is therefore provided with a syntactic morpheme (the nominalizer).

Chomsky has stated that in a generative grammar only recoverable deletions are possible (those transformations which, while deleting some constituent segment introduce new segments). This idea is materialized in the embedding transformation of a constituent sentence according to which the transformed variant of the embedded constituent sentence must replace a dummy element of the matrix.

Nominalization appears to be a double - substitution[1] "at a first level: the substitution of the constituent sentence, for a dummy nominal or a nominal of the matrix, at a second level the substitution of the auxiliary by one or several nominalizers, that is the depredicativization transformation".

Besides depredicativization which is obligatory, nominalization often entails (1) changes in the functioning of other important sentence constituents - like the subject, the direct object, the Manner Adverbial, the indirect object, etc., (2) the deletion of some sentence constituents, as the nominalizing morpheme is not compatible with any constituent structure - nomina-

1 Tutescu (1970)

lisation consisting of a series of transformation acting after the embedding of the constituent sentence in the matrix.

Consequently according to: (1) the deep structure from which they start (- the position of the nominalized sentence in the matrix and the type of host nominal are particularly significant-); (2) the modifications produced in the structure of the constituent sentence; (3) the function of the resulting nominal in the final surface structure (e.g. infinitival nominals, participial nominals, etc.)

there will be several types of nominalizations.

From a linguistic (transformational p.o.v.) two nominals in two different languages are equivalent only when (1) (2) (3) are the same.

It is such types of equivalences that contrastive analysis has to enumerate in the order of their decreasing similarity and not merely translation equivalences.

It goes without saying that every such "transformational equivalent" is a translation equivalent though the converse is not true. Compare (I) (II) (III) :

Before his going abroad
- I Inainte de plecarea lui in străinătate
- II Inainte de a pleca el în străinătate
- III Inainte ca el să plece în străinătate

(I) is both a transformational and a translational equivalent
(II) - though a nominal, it results from a different kind of nominalization (the infinitive one) which, in contrast to the above type does not change the nominative subject into a genitive.
(III) it is the non-nominalized sentence
(II) and (III) are translational but not transformational equivalents of the English nominal.

1. We have based our discussion on a metalinguistic corpus: Lees (1963), Vendler (1968), Rosenbaum (1969), Jesperson (1923), for English; Vasiliu-Eretescu (1969), Gramatica Academiei (1964) for Romanian.

In the following we shall restrict ourselves to those types of nominalizations which in English contain the - ing - nominaliser.

1.2.1. The first and simpler case is that when the matrix sentence and the constituent one share a nominal at the point of insertion. Such nominalizations - also called participial nominalizations - are essentially relativisations.

The subject of the embedded sentence is the direct or the prepositional object of the verb in the matrix sentence.

1. I see the child playing in the street. — Văd copilul jucîndu-se în stradă.
2. She thought of him returning alone. — S-a gîndit la el întorcîndu-se singur.

The common deep structure is :

$$X \frown NP_1 \frown R \frown NP_1 \frown Aux \frown Vb \frown Y \frown Nmlz$$

where Nmlz → ing Nmlz → ind/îndu

I ⌢ see ⌢ the ⌢ child ⌢ R ⌢ the ⌢ child — Văd ⌢ copilul ⌢ R ⌢ copilul ⌢ Aux

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 — 1 2 3 4 5

Aux ⌢ play ⌢ in ⌢ the ⌢ street ⌢ ing → — se ⌢ juca ⌢ în ⌢ strada ⌢ îndu →

8 9 10 11 12 13 — 6 7 8 9

[1] → 1 ⌢ 2 ⌢ 3 ⌢ 4 ⌢ 5 ⌢ ∅ ⌢ ∅ ⌢ 8 ⌢ 9 ⌢ 10 ⌢ 11 ⌢ 12 ⌢ 13 [1] → 1 ⌢ 2 ⌢ 3 ⌢ ∅ ⌢ 5 ⌢ 6 ⌢ 7 ⌢ 8 ⌢ 9

[2] → 1 ⌢ 2 ⌢ 3 ⌢ 4 ⌢ ∅ ⌢ ∅ ⌢ ∅ ⌢ ∅ ⌢ 9 ⌢ 10 ⌢ 11 ⌢ 12 ⌢ 13 [2] → 1 ⌢ 2 ⌢ ∅ ⌢ ∅ ⌢ 0 ⌢ 6 ⌢ 7 ⌢ 8 ⌢ 9

[3] → 1 ⌢ 2 ⌢ 3 ⌢ 4 ⌢ ∅ ⌢ ∅ ⌢ ∅ ⌢ ∅ ⌢ 9+13 ⌢ 10 ⌢ 11 ⌢ 12 [3] → 1 ⌢ 2 ⌢ ∅ ⌢ ∅ ⌢ 0 ⌢ 6+ 9 ⌢ 7 ⌢ 8

I see the child playing in the street — Văd copilul jucîndu-se în stradă

The derivational process is perfectly similar.

T[1] - deletion of the common nominal

T[2] - depredicativization (Auxiliary and Relative deletion)

T[3] - reordering of the Nmlz after the main verb.

1.2.2. The same deep structure and a similar derivational process underlie such compounds as:

bleeding wound — rană sîngerîndă

flying saucer — farfurie zburătoare

The deep structure is :

Nom ⌢ R ⌢ Nom ⌢ Aux ⌢ Vb ⌢ Nmlz

R: Nmlz → ing

R: Nmlz → {ind / tor} Flex

(Flex is introduced to explain agreement between the adjective and the noun)

2. A different type of nominalization occurs when the matrix sentence and the constituent one do not share any nominal, or at least, do not share any nominal at the point of insertion.

The verb in the matrix sentence can take as its object a Nominal subcategorized as Det - S or - S': this is the category of nouns with sentential complements e.g. E: The fact the he was late - R: Faptul că a întîrziat. They are (+ Abstract) (+ Indefinite) nominals whose main syntactic feature is that they are deletable. The nominalizer will act on such a complement sentence transforming it into a noun phrase, while the "host" nominal is deleted (or sometimes retained).

In such cases, English seems to be richer allowing for two different nominalizations of the same nominalizable sentence.

E. John^came^lately^Nmlz → (1) John's^coming^lately
(2) The late coming of John

R. Ion^a^venit^tîrziu^Nmlz → Venirea tîrzie a lui Ion

In English (1) and (2) are different nominals with distinct formal and sometimes even semantic properties.

As we proposed to discuss - ing nominals in the order of their decreasing similitude with Romanian, let us first deal with the (2) type of nominalization, to be found in Romanian too.

The essence of this type of nominalization is the transformation of the verb into a nominal proper (that is a nominal modified by an adjective, determined by an article) and the transformation of the subject or/and direct object into genitive structures.

The students came →	Studenții au venit →
The coming of the students	Venirea studenților
They sold the books →	Ei au vîndut cărțile →
The selling of the books	Vînzarea cărților

The underlying structure is the same in English and Romanian:

E≈R Det^Nom^Art^Conj^S^Nmlz

where Nom —(+ Abstract) (+ Indefinite)

The domain of the transformation is more restricted in Romanian; in English, there are no constraints on the structure of the constituent sentence while in Romanian such constraints exist; they are caused by the impossibility for a Romanian noun to be constructed with both objective and subjective genitive at the

same time. Consequently, a number of transformations will apply to a Romanian constituent sentence before nominalization, or else the latter blocks.

It is, perhaps, of interest to find out what structures are nominalizable in both languages.

1) NP + Vi

John ^ sings ^ Nmlz → the singing of John

Ion ^ cînta ^ Nmlz ⇒ cîntarea/cîntul lui Ion

2) NP + Vt + DO

Structures containing both subject and direct object are nominalizable in English, but not in Romanian.

I read the book → My reading of the book

Eu citesc cartea → *Citirea mea a cărții

In Romanian a transformation prior to nominalization deletes either the subject or the object.

Elevul vede pe profesor →
- Vederea profesorului
- Vederea elevului

Deletion of the subject or object is also possible in English when either of them is (+ Indefinite)

One reads books → The reading of the books

3) NP + VT + (DO) + IO

This structure is nominalizable in English but not in Romanian where no sentence containing an indirect object can be nominalized.

E. I bring the book to the teacher ⇒ My bringing of the book to the teacher

R. Aduc profesorului cartea ⇒ *Aducerea profesorului cărții

(3) Aducerea cărții profesorului

(3) - is possible, but represents the nominalization of aduc cartea profesorului (I bring the book of the teacher).

(4) aducerea profesorului

(4) - is possible, but it is derived from - I-au adus pe profesor. Thus, an obligatory transformation deletes the IO in Romanian.

Generally speaking, sentences with DO + IO or with DO + DO are nominalizable in English but not in Romanian.

învăț lecția pe copil →
*învățarea lecției a copilului
*învățarea lecției pe copil

In Romanian, nominalization appears only if the verb has just one object.

învăț lecția → învățarea lecției
învăț pe copil → învățarea copilului

- Structure of the type NP + V + Prep. N P are nominalizable in both languages.

I think of you → Mă gîndesc la tine →
My thinking of you Gîndirea mea la tine
I am going to school → Merg la școală →
My going to school Mersul meu la școală

It appears that these nominalizations affect only the subject and the direct object.

By the way, in English, nominalization can be a test for destinguishing between Verb + particle + NP - where NP is direct object and therefore affected by the transformation - and Verb + Prep + NP not affected by the transformation:

He looked up the word in the dictionary. →
His looking up of the word in the dictionary.
He looked at me through the window. →
His looking at me through the window.

When the Romanian constituent sentence has received a nominalizable structure, the transformational process will be almost identical for the two languages:

The underlying structure is common:

Det ⌒ Nom ⌒ Art ⌒ Conj ⌒ S ⌒ Nmls

it ⌒ (the) ⌒ that ⌒ S ⌒ Poss ⌒ ing ⌒ (of)

fapt ⌒ art ⌒ ca ⌒ S ⌒ $Suff_n$ ⌒ Flex ⌒ (Poss) ⌒ (de)

e.g. The nominals:

E. The students' late coming R. Venirea tîrzie a studenților

have the following derivation:[2]

---

2. Some explanations concerning the structure of Nmls are necessary here:

(continuation of this note on pp.161 and 162)

E. Nmlz → Poss ⌒ ing ⌒ of

Poss - is it is the genitive marker attached to the subject of the nominalized sentence.

of - makes possible the transformation of the direct object into an of - adjunct; it is deleted when the main Verb is a Vi.

The reading of books

Ing. - As a marker of this nominalization, ing is a member of a set of morphemes containing: tion, ment, etc., all of them capable to produce this type of nominals. Ing is the most general one in as much as it can be affixed to almost any verb.

His { judging / judgment } His { coming / - }

His { objecting / objection } to her behaviour

R. Nmlz → Suff ⌒ n ⌒ Flex ⌒ (Poss) ⌒ (de)

Suffn. - is the element affixed to the verb. Romanian disposes of two general, grammaticalized morphemes:

They are suff n → { - r (ar, er, ir) Venirea / - t Spălatul }

- r - marks the long infinitive

- t - marks the supine.

These two syntactic morphemes are in free variation:

Citirea/cititul cărților

Suff n also has other surface realizations, distributed according to an irregular pattern.

Suff n → { int, / ∅ } (folosirea acestui obiect/folosinta .... dansul meu - /dansatul meu/

Poss → a, al, ai, ale

The presence of Poss, in the deep structure is justified because: (a) when the resulting nominal does not take a definite article, or (b) when some other constituent is inserted between the nominal and the genitive, the presence of the Possessive article is obligatory.

(continuation of this note on page 162)

Cda 41/1971 Fasc 2

| | | |

- venire tîrziu a studenţilor
- venire tîrzie a studenţilor

T 8 - Affixes the definite article to the nominal in Romanian.

- venires tîrzie a studenţilor

In English the article is deleted, as the preposed genitive functions as a determiner.

Note : We think that the presence of the Art in the base sentence is necessary not only for contrastive purposes, but even for the generation of such nominals as

The coming of the student

(Any genitive construction starts from a structure of the type) the house is of John - John's house, with a Det before the first Nom.

This deep structure will generate more easily the nominal

the reading of those books

simply from

The one's reading of those books deleting the subject (without necessarily applying the genitive transformation)

T 9 - deletes the matrix nominal. (see 2.o.3.)

The derivation of a sentence with a DO is roughly similar.

a selling of the books — o vînzare a cărţilor / o vînzare de cărţi

it	Art	that	one	Aux	sell	faptul	Art	ca	el	Aux	vinde
1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

the	books	Poss	ing	of	→	cărţile	suffn	Flex	} Poss de	→	
7	8	9	1o	11		7 + 8	9	1o	11		

(optional)

→1 2 Ø 4 Ø 6 7 8 9 1o 11

→1 2 Ø Ø Ø 6 7 8 9 1o 11

→1 2 Ø Ø Ø 6+1o 9 11 7 8

→1 2 Ø Ø Ø 6+1o Ø 11 7 8

→1 2 Ø Ø Ø 6+1o 11+7 + 8

(obligatory)

1 →1 2 Ø 4 6 7 8 9 1o 11

2 →1 2 Ø Ø Ø 6 7 8 9 1o 11

3 →1 2 Ø Ø Ø 6 + 9 1o 11 7 8

4 ----------

5 →1 2 Ø Ø Ø 6 + 9 + 1o 11 + 7 + 8

6

7

→ ∅ ∅ ∅ ∅ 2 6+10 11+7 + 8 → ∅ ∅ ∅ ∅ 2 6 + 9 + 10 11+7 + 8

a selling of the books — o vînzare a cărților

T 1 - Is a depredicativization

T 2 - Deletes the subject and is obligatory for Romanian and optional for English

T 3 - Attaches the Nmlz to the main verb

T 4 - Deletes the Poss. in English - this transformation is obligatory for English and it is a consequence of T 2

T 5 - Reorders of before the direct object in English and, respectively, Poss de before the direct object in Romanian

T 6 - Places the indefinite article before the nominalized verbs

T 7 - Deletes the matrix abstract nominal.

2.o.2. In both languages nominalization occurs after passivization because the passive transformation needs the Aux., which is deleted through nominalization.

The nominalized verbs can have active as well as passive meaning.

E.	John cooked the meat	Ion a gătit carnea
Pass.	The meat was cooked by John	Carnea a fost gătită de Ion
Nom.	The cooking of the meat by John	Gătitul cărnii de către Ion

It appears that - in Romanian - if the sentence is going to undergo passivization, it is no longer necessary to delete its subject, as the latter will become (through passivization) a member of a Prep N P which is not influences by nominalization.

That is why translation equivalences are established rather often - between active nominalized English sentences and the nominalization of the corresponding Rom. passives.

E. His buying of the books R. Cumpărarea cărților de către el

2.o.3. It is to be noticed that this English nominalization displays a great variety of surface forms due to a number of optional transformations which can be applied:

The genitive transformation

John's house → the house of John

John's singing of the song → the singing of John

(two of adjuncts are not tolerated as a rule[3] and the direct object has to be dropped).

Hence, in English and Romanian, the ambiguity of:

the teachers' training — perfecționarea profesorilor

Both may come either from:

they trained the teachers — ei i-au perfecționat pe profesori
→their training of the teachers
→the training of the teachers →perfecționarea profesorilor

or from :

the teachers trained their pupils → — profesorii i-au perfecționat pe elevi →
the teachers' training →
the training of the teachers — perfecționarea profesorilor

The confusion increases as we realize that in English the objective genitive can be further transformed into a surface "subjective genitive".

They shot the prisoners → The shooting of the prisoners → The prisoners' shooting

2.o.3.(b) In Romanian only one more transformation after T 9 (pg.160) is possible:

(1) cîntarea Mariei → (1') a Mariei cîntare
(2) culesul florilor → (2') al florilor culeș

(1') and (2') are stylistic variants of (1) and (2) to be used in poetic or archaic style, not too frequent even there.

2.o.4. As mentioned above, the - ing - nominaliser can produce two different nominals:

He read the novel < (1) His reading of the novel
(2) His reading the novel

If the essence of the process discussed above was the complete nominalization of a verb, its transformation into a noun proper, the most striking feature of the second subtype is a mixed verbal and nominal behaviour.

We adopt Vendler's names calling (1) a strong nominal and(2) a weak nominal.

---

3 Vendler (1968) quotes an example pg. 65
"That singing of arias of his kept awake all night".

The weak nominal has the following formal characteristics

1) the subject of the nominalisable sentence becomes a genitive;
2) the direct object is retained;
3) the Adverb Manner is retained;
4) the depredicativization preserves the Aspect component (have-n) of the Aux while deleting the other components;

$$\text{Aux} \rightarrow \text{Tense} \frown (\text{Modal}) \frown (\text{have-n}) \frown (\text{be-ing})$$

5) the resulting nominal cannot suffer the genitive transformation. Feature (1) is common to the weak and strong nominal, features (2) - (5) distinguish them.

As an example let us give the derivation of the sentence:

John's having won the race so easily surprised me

T 2 - is the auxiliary transformation (partial deletion of the Aux.)
T 3 - orders the Nmlz. after the have constituent of the Aux.
T 4 - attaches the Poss. to the subject
T 5 - is a deletion of the host nominal
T 6 - is a deletion of the article

	it	the	that	John	(past)	(have-n)	win	the	race	so	easily	Poss	ing	surprised	me
	1	2	3	4	5		6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
2. →	1	2	∅	4	∅		6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
3. →	1	2	∅	4	∅		6	12	13	7	8	9	10	11	∅	∅	14	15
4. →	1	2	∅	4+12	∅		6+13	7	8	9	10	11				14	15
5. →	∅	2	∅	4+12	∅		6+13	7	8	9	10	11				14	15
6. →	∅	∅	∅	4+12	∅		6+13	7	8	9	10	11				14	15

→ John's having won the race so easily surprised me

The presence of the definite article allows for the generation of such sentences which according to Jesperson[4] are frequent.

The leaving them is always pain

(T 6 is not applied)

Again, a great variety of surface forms is generated through the application of optional transformation. Thus, to generate sentences like:

I prefer you driving slowly

4 See more on this in Jesperson. V. pg. 118.

An optional transformation (after T 5) deletes the Poss. Sentences like (1) We decided on him representing us.

(2) We decided on his representing us

(1') I don't like his smoking a pipe

(2') I don't like him smoking a pipe

have the same derivation: after (1) and (1') are derived, an optional transformation changes the genitive form into an accusative form naturally required by prepositions and by transitive verbs. Sometimes in the forms (2) and (2') more emphasis was laid on the subject him than on his.[5]

2.o.5. The distribution of the strong and weak nominal is the same and, in most of the cases, so is their meaning:

His selling the books proved to be a good idea
His selling of the books proved to be a good idea
Before the coming of the students
Before the students' coming

However, there are matrix sentences, which tolerate only the strong nominal.[6]

His singing of the song was bad
*His singing the song was bad,

or in which a difference of meaning is felt between the two nominals (the exemple is quoted after Lees).[7]

1. His drawing fascinated me because he always did it left handed (strong nominal - The way he drew fascinated me because..).

2. His drawing fascinated me because I didn't know he could be persuaded so easily (weak nominal - the fact that he drew...).

The strong nominal refers to an action which is qualified in relation to its author (that is why non-action verbs do not have strong nominals.

*His considering of her silly
*His admiring of her

---

5 Jesperson, V, pg. 133-34 quotes the NED "Even a pronoun standing before the gerund is put in the objective in dialect speech, and when the pronoun is emphatic, this is common in ordinary coloquial English".
Instead of me talking to you, you ought to be talking to me.
You say nothing about us calling.

6 See Vendler (1968) ch.V, pg. 78.

7 Lees (1963).

The weak nominal is more abstract: it merely refers to a fact.

Compare:

(1) Reading is learning
(2) His rending of the poem was hardly acceptable

2.o.6. In Romanian we have no parallel weak nominal. (no Romanian nominal can have a genitive subject and direct object.)

As translation equivalents of the weak nominal, Romanian uses (a) strong nominals - when the English weak nominal is semantically equivalent with the corresponding strong one and when nominalization can apply (2.o.1.).

One more thing: when information conveyed by the - have-n component of the weak nominal cannot be left aside, nominalization blocks:

Their having come is not likely < Nu e posibil ca ei să fi venit
*Nu e posibilă venirea lor

(b) Very often, when the weak nominal has been embedded in a prepositional phrase functioning as an adverbial, Romanian uses alongside of the strong nominal, an infinitival nominal.

Before selling his estate — Inainte de a-şi vinde moşia
Inainte de vînzarea moşiei lui

2.2.o. We are now in position to explain the generation of such compounds as:

- sewing machine — maşina de cusut
- sleeping carriage — vagon de dormit
- dancing teacher — profesor de dans
- boxing gloves — mănuşi de box

These compounds are based on nominalizations similar to those discussed in 2 (i.e. based on the complementation of an abstract nominal).

sewing machine — maşina de cusut

a machine wh is for it that one Aux sew Poss ing. → maşina R este {pentru / de} a ca cineva Aux coase Suffn Poss Flex →

machine for sewing →
sewing machine

maşina de cusut

Romanian has one transformation less.

The ambiguity of dancing teacher is solved in terms of its possible derivations.

(a) dancing teacher - teacher who is dancing - profesor dansînd
(b) dancing teacher - teacher for dancing - profesor de dans.

3.o.o. A third type of ing nominalizations could be called Circumstantial or Adverbial nominalizations. They are responsible for the generation of the absolute participial constructions perfectly similar in English and Romanian.

E.	The question being settled we went home	Chestiunea fiind lămurită, ne-am dus acasă
	The rain ruining my hat, I had to buy a new one	Ploaia stricîndu-mi pălăria, a trebuit să-mi cumpăr una nouă
	Holidays having finished, John went up to Oxford	Vacanța terminîndu-se, Ion a plecat la Oxford

The common deep structure is

$$NP \frown Det \frown Nom \frown \left\{ \begin{matrix} Conj \\ R \end{matrix} \right\} \frown S \frown Nmlz$$

where the matrix nominal is a dummy element characterized by the syntactical-semantic feature (+ circumstance); is not specified by any lexical formative; It functions in the Av Phrase.

E. Nmlz → ing R. Nmlz → ind/înd

The only change in the constituent structure is depredicativization. In English, the have-en component of the Aux is retained (3).

We	went	there	Nom	Δ	(+circ	) when	the	rain	(Past)	(have-en)	stop ing
1	2	3	4			5	6	7	8	9	10 11
→1	2	3	4			∅	6	7	∅	9	10 11
→1	2	3	∅			∅	6	7	∅	9 + 11	10
∅	∅	6	7			∅	9+11	10	1	2	3

The rain having stopped, we went there

Am	mers	acolo	Nom	Δ	(+circ	) cînd	ploaia	Aux	se	opri	ind
1	2	3	4			5	6	7	8	9	
→1	2	3	4			∅	6	∅	8	9	
→1	2	3	∅			∅	6	∅	8+9		
∅	∅	6	∅			8+9	1	2	3		

Ploaia oprindu-se, am mers acolo

T 1 - depredicativization
T 2 - reordering of the ing/înd and deletion of the dummy element

T 3 - places the Adverbial clause before the main clause.

We assign the same derivation to the type of sentences:

He went into the office leaving the door open	A intrat în birou lăsînd usa deschisă

It seems more convenient to give them this derivation than to derive them by coordination.

(He went into the office and left the door open)

as not any two coordinated sentences can undergo this transformation.

He went into the office and wrote a letter

*He went into the office typing a letter.

B i b l i o g r a p h y

Gramatica Academiei, Editura Academiei R.S.R. (1964)

Jesperson (1922) - Jesperson Otto, A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles, Heidelberg (1922)

Lees (1963) - Lees R., The Grammar of English Nominalisation, The Hague (1963)

Rosenbaumn (1967) - Rosenbaumn, Peter, The Grammar of English Predicate Constructions, The M.I.T. Press (1967)

Vasiliu-Eretescu(1969)-Vasiliu Emanoil şiGalopenţia Eretescu Sandc, Sintaxa transformaţională a limbii române

Vendler (1968) - Vendler Zeno, Adjectives and Nominalizations. The Hague (1968).